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ABSTRACT

This document presents the rationale and overview of an elementary English language project in which innovative linguistic materials were intrcduced in the classrcom and an in-service teacher training program was provided to prepare teachers to use these materials. Language--its nature and children's use of it--provides the basis fcr articles dealing with (1) language as a code, words as symbols, and wcrd connotaticns, including sample lesson plans for grades 4 and 6, (2) the teacher's role in early childhood language develcpment, (3) the structure of the English language--identification of nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and derivational suffixes--including sample lesson plans for grades 1, 2, and 5, (4) "standards" in language usage and its application to the improvement of language usage, including sample lesson plans for grades 4 and 6, (5) phoneme-grapheme relationships in the language program, (6) language concepts in an integrated K-6 language-literature-composition program, including lesson plans for reading poetry in grade 6 and for using verbs effectively in grade 4, (7) a description of in-service courses, and (8) new trends in elementary English. (JM)

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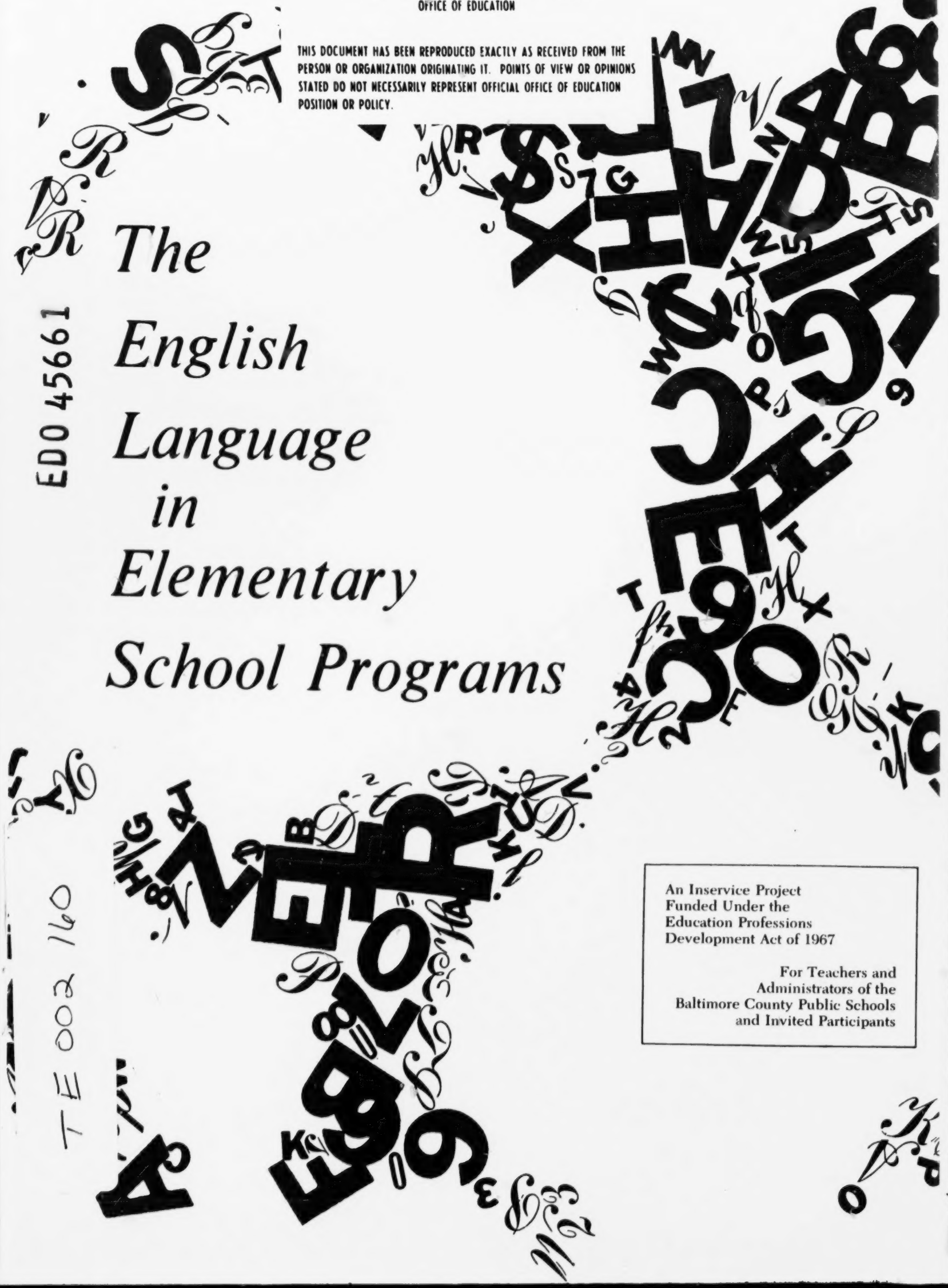
The English Language in Elementary School Programs



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Project Director: JEAN SISK, *Coordinator of English Language Arts*

Associate Directors: KATHERINE DOST, *Coordinator of Elementary Education*, and CLOTILDE DRECHSLER, *Supervisor of Reading*

Assistants in Language: DOROTHY EDEL and VIRGINIA SLATTERY

Reading Inservice Consultant: ROSEMARY GREEN WILSON

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SPEAKERS AND CONSULTANTS

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Demonstration Teacher: MRS. EVELYN JAMES, *Baltimore County*

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Foreword

Six years ago the Baltimore County Public Schools embarked on an extensive, long-term curriculum development project in the English language arts. The County, now with the seventeenth largest school system in the nation, has been a pioneer in curriculum development for well over twenty years, having supported summer curriculum workshops at public expense since 1946. The English Office had been aware for some time of sweeping changes in subject matter emphases, attitudes, and methods related to linguistic research in grammar, usage, semantics, and dialectology. The increasing likelihood that commercially produced materials incorporating much that was new would soon be available also supported the re-consideration of the entire "language" strand of the program—as differentiated from the reading-literature and oral-and-written composition elements. Large public school systems, it was agreed, must plan progressive changes in curriculum and teacher-training far in advance, and must take into account the need to adopt a position that recognizes not only the theory behind program changes but also assumes the responsibilities of involving almost three thousand teachers of English, K-12, in major curriculum revisions.

Curriculum Materials

Materials to be used with pupils at all grade levels were produced by committees of teachers, consultants, and supervisors under the leadership of the English Office. These materials include (1) a bulletin developed in the summer of 1965 by representatives of all grade levels, to be used as a basis for future curriculum development committees, (2) a K-6 language guide that is essentially a self-contained grammar usage, and functionally applied language course of study (1966), (3) a revision of this guide, containing a newly structured primary program, and (4) a bulletin written as a supplement to the K-6 language guide and intended to suggest ways to extend the language concepts away from grammar and usage into more comprehensive linguistic areas, and to illustrate ways of relating knowledge about language to the improvement of reading, literature enjoyment, and composing.

Experimental Try-out

These changes in curriculum were accompanied by try-out of materials in pilot schools, usually where members of the curriculum committees were teaching, evaluation by teacher-committees and the development of inservice training activities aimed at developing sufficient background and readiness for use of these innovative materials. A first inservice course for elementary teachers was developed by staff supervisors, elementary school vice principals, and teachers. This course was modified in the summer of 1968 and used as a basis of two inservice courses taught, In spite of the fact that almost 400 teachers were enrolled in pilot courses before the end of

1968, the job of achieving readiness for county-wide implementation of the language program into one hundred elementary schools and over twenty junior high schools, was too expensive and ambitious an undertaking for even a fairly well-to-do school system to try on a short-term basis.

Application for Grant

It was therefore decided to apply for a federal grant under EPDA Basic Studies Programs for the purpose of extending inservice training sufficiently to provide for the involvement of more than a thousand teachers within a two-to-three year period. The project was duly approved. It included in its design these components:

A SUMMER INSTITUTE for administrators of Baltimore County elementary schools to provide them with a background of linguistic theory and to familiarize them with the linguistically based curriculum guides and commercial materials now being used in the County schools.

AN INTRODUCTORY COURSE for elementary school teachers, to familiarize them with the Baltimore County curriculum materials based on linguistic theory and to present background information on the nature of language, language change, and structure relevant to the use of the County guides. Twelve classes were organized, making the course easily accessible for all interested teachers.

LINGUISTIC APPROACHES TO THE TEACHING OF BEGINNING READING, a course introducing teachers of grades 1 and 2 to ways of teaching reading based on the same type of linguistic research used in the development of the County language guides.

AN ADVANCED COURSE for qualified teachers and administrators, to provide a more intensive study of the theoretical background to linguistic approaches to the teaching of English.

DEMONSTRATION CENTERS throughout the year in various parts of the County.

CONSULTATIVE SERVICE to local elementary school faculties.

The evaluation of the project to date (summer of 1970) has been excellent. Teachers and administrators who have been in the programs have found them helpful, and both "inside" and "outside" consultants have agreed that the project is not only helpful to our personnel but that it has something to offer to other teachers in other school systems. It is, indeed, to extend the effect of our courses and our plan for massive teacher-training, that we offer this bulletin, which combines articles based on theory-lectures by consultants and staff, offered in both the summer institute and the courses for teachers, samples of demonstration lessons used by our teachers to illustrate practical applications of theory in the elementary school classrooms, and outlines of course and curriculum content. Admittedly, the bulletin presents only a small sampling of the total program, but we offer it in the hope it will prove of value.

JEAN C. SISK, *Project Director*
Coordinator of English, K-12
Baltimore County Public Schools

Summer 1970

Language Development in Early Childhood

A consideration of language development in early childhood must give attention to a number of aspects, ranging from characteristics of the pre-language stage to certain features related to language acquisition. Other factors which warrant attention are sex differences in language development, reasons for language retardation, and social class influences.

In our society, verbal behavior probably gives the child his first control over his environment. The child learns to use language to give and receive information, to control, in part, the things that are happening around him, and to express his own feelings. (Huey, 1958)

Pre-language Stage

During infancy the child achieves increasing control of the mouth parts for vocalizing back vowels and front consonants. The cooings and utterings that delight parents are actually contributing to this achievement. Experience with solid foods affords further exercise and helps to develop the speech mechanism.

The so-called babbling stage is usually around seven months of age. As the child repeats sounds in varying pitches with varying intensities and cadences, he is further gaining control of the sound elements of language. However, many of the sounds which are heard in every child's babbling must actually be relearned when the child begins producing meaningful words. Sanders (1969) states, "It is often said that a child proceeds from a stage where he babbles to a stage where he says words. More correctly, however, we should say that he proceeds from passive language to active language. The babbling that a child does may play a minor role in his motor learning."

Acquisition of Language

There are two processes involved when a child learns language:

1. He must master the control of breath, larynx, and tongue necessary to speak.
2. He must make the association between meaning and object. (Breckenridge and Vincent, 1965)

At first the child's articulation may not be concise even though phrasing and inflection may communicate meaning. Eventually the finer articulatory movements of mouth, jaw, and throat define the vowel quality and consonants of speech.

As for associating meaning with object, McCarthy (1959) offers this explanation:

> Much of the meaning that words acquire for children must occur by the so-called Insight or Contiguity principle as when Helen Keller first realized that everything has a name when she experienced the manual spelling of the word for "water" and felt the cool stream from a pump wash over her hand. The discovery that everything has a name and that *this* is the name for *that* obviously occurs by insight and contiguity.

Meaningful words appear towards the end of the first year or the beginning of the second year. At first a word is a crude approximation. Sometimes the first words exhibit an onomatopoeic character. Thus a watch is a "tick-tock," a dog is a "bow wow," and a cow is a "moo-moo." (Irwin, 1949)

Active vocabulary, or words that a child can use, develops rapidly at eighteen months and on. For example, the vocabulary count for a two-year-old child may be 272 words and rise to 2,072 words by the age of five. Soon after the fifteenth month a child's first sentences may appear. Words often used in constructing sentences are: *I, is, you, that, do, this,* and *the.* We might add *No*! Nouns and verbs are used more

JANE MORRELL

frequently than adjectives and connectors, with nouns constituting about 50% of the speech of young children.

The child's vocabulary is generally determined by the naming practices of adults. In the belief that children have trouble pronouncing long names, adults tend to provide the shortest possible name, as "dog" for "airdale" and "car" for "automobile." It is not unusual for a child to overgeneralize the use of a word. For example, "dog" may be applied to every kind of four-legged animal, and "Daddy" may be applied to every man who enters the house.

As for stress and word order, children learn the stress system as they learn to talk. "Susan will be sick" becomes, in the child's language, "Susan sick." Word order and intended meaning are kept intact with the help of communication between parent and child. Child speech can be rather well characterized as a systematic reduction of adult speech, largely accomplished by omitting function words that carry little information.

With focus on the acquisition of structure, Ruth Weir (1962) carried out a study involving tape recorded and transcribed utterances which her child made while he was alone in the crib, between the ages of 28 and 30 months. Some examples of soliloquies are:

"There's a hat
There's another
There's hat
There's another hat
That's a hat."

"How about
How about the Daddy
O.K.
Daddy's two foot
Daddy has some feet."

The child seems to be acquiring language structure. In each of the soliloquies there is at least one ungrammatical construction: "There's hat" instead of "There's a hat", and "Daddy's two foot" instead of "Daddy's two feet". But then he repeats the structure correctly — "Daddy has some feet" and "That's a hat."

Her study suggests that correction plays a very small part in language learning; and that often when it does come in, it is self correction, not correction by someone else. Her study suggests, further, that language learning is rather the acquisition of structures. (Whipp, 1969)

It is not unusual for a young child to regularize the irregularities in English usage. For example, he may say, "I digged in the yard" or "Teddy hurt hisself." Many verbs ending in voiced sonsonants form the simple past with "d." The forms "me, my, myself" could suggest "he, his, hisself". While simplifying our language system the child attempts to induce rules in consistent fashion.

Between the ages of two and five repeating one out of four words uttered is normal. Repetition can be caused by excitement over his own activity, attempt to direct a peer's activity, and/or to gain attention. This tendency can serve to reinforce vocabulary.

Sex Differences in Language Development

McCarthy (1953) considers certain factors which may account for the general acceleration of language function among girls as contrasted to boys. One of the factors, the environmental situation in our culture, is somewhat different for the boy than the girl.

Boys and girls are usually cared for by the mother and exposed to her speech mode. The language experiences are apt to be more satisfactory for the girl than the boy, because she can identify more readily with the mother and can produce a fairly good echo-reaction to the mother's voice. In contrast, the boy's need to identify with and imitate the speech of the father is apt to be thwarted. Not only is there less contact with the father; the tremendous difference in voice quality of the mature male and the young boy can result in a less satisfying echo-reaction experience for the boy.

In our culture the boy is encouraged to engage in outdoor activities more often than girls. Thus he is separated from further linguistic stimulation. The girl, in turn, is more likely to be found within the question-asking range of the mother and can gain linguistic stimulation. Furthermore, boys are apt to play with blocks and wheel toys, objects low in conversational value. Girls, on the other hand, are more likely to play with dolls and household toys which have been shown to be of conversational value.

Since the aforementioned conditions prevail in our culture, they provide one possible explanation why girls have an "edge" over boys in early language development.

Reasons for Language Retardation

Following are some of the conditions which may contribute to language retardation:

1. Deafness. Children who cannot hear the model for speech cannot learn to speak through the usual channels.
2. Defects of mouth, larynx, or tongue, or defects in the nerve control of these organs.
3. Mental retardation. However, there is need to recognize that not all slow talkers are feeble-minded. Some very bright children have not talked until three or three and one-half years of age.
4. An inadequate or defective model and lack of being talked to. These lacks rob a child of his model for imitation and a motive for practice. Institutionalized children are conspicuously different from children reared in good homes where there is ample language model. (Breckenridge and Vincent, 1965). Twins or children very close together in age sometimes provide each other with sign language or jargon which delays the acquisition of language. An inadequate model and lack of being talked to are some of the conditions associated with children in disadvantaged communities.
5. Early bi-lingualism. Children who are exposed to two or more languages in the learning years (two to four years) are usually slower in the development of either language than they would be in the development of one language at a time. However, after they have the mechanics of each of the languages, bilingual children do have advantages.
6. Emotional causes. Too much urging to talk or too much emphasis on language success can result in strain and tension. Or, if the mother is preoccupied or impersonal and allows the child to vegetate, language development may be stunted.

Social Context of Language Acquisition

It is a well-known fact that the content of speech is culturally determined. Children develop and test their tentative notions about the meanings of words and the structure of sentences through verbal interaction with more verbally mature adults.

John and Goldstein (1964), in discussing social class differences and language development, point out:

> Middle class occupations generally require and permit verbal interaction with a variety of people. The individual must continually adjust his speech in terms of rate, intonation, vocabulary, and grammatical complexity, in an attempt to provide optimal communication. In contrast to this, the verbal interaction required by lower class occupations is of a more routine, highly conventional nature. The middle class individual, then, develops a more *flexible* use of language than that found in persons from lower class backgrounds. The gap between the speaker's verbal skill and the listener's potential for comprehension is greatest in adult-child verbal interaction. Here, the ability to use language flexibly is most important —it permits the adult to adjust his speech to fit the child's level of comprehension.
>
> The middle class child learns by feedback, by being heard, corrected, and modified—by gaining "operant control" over his social environment by using words that he hears. The child learns by interacting with an adult teacher who plays an active role in simplifying the various components of word-referent relationships.
>
> The child from a lower socio-economic background may experience a deficient amount of verbal interaction. He learns most of his language from *receptive* exposure—by hearing, rather than by the correction of his own active speech. Words acquired with little corrective feedback in a stable learning environment will be of minimum use as mediators, at a later stage of development.

Nevertheless, there can be variations in language ability within a social class. Such variables as parental conversation, atten-

tion, and praise can account for these variations.

In observations of lower-class homes, according to Deutch (1964), it appears that speech sequences are temporarily very limited and poorly constructed syntactically. In the belief that the main differences between the social classes seem to lie in syntactical organization, he feels a vital area to be included in any pre-school enrichment program would be training in the use of word sequences to relate and unify cognitions.

An article in *The New York Times Magazine* entitled "Why Some 3-Year-Olds Get A's—And Some Get C's" offers an interesting account of the Harvard School of Education's Pre-School Project, related to studying children between the ages of one and three in their natural habitat. During a period of three years, language development (and other areas of growth) of children in lower and middle class homes was carefully observed, along with the mothers' behavior. The research team spotted these prototype mothers—

the Super Mother, the Smothering, the Almost Overwhelmed, and the Zoo-Keeper Mother. These types were represented in all social classes observed. The team of growth scientists was convinced that there is need to start before the age of three to prevent the handicaps faced by disadvantaged children, in any social class. Two possible strategies have been offered: starting kibbutz-like centers in which trained teachers would educate children from earliest infancy and training parents in the way they raise children. Although both of these approaches have been attacked, the people in the growth sciences support the possibility that a means can be devised for helping each young child realize his full potential.

In retrospect, what do we find, while confronting language development in the first five to six years? What are some of the highlights?

The home environment has a significant bearing on the degree to which young children become adept in language. While the type of parental influence and contact plays a major role, the young child does manage to insert and/or inject his own power with words, be it vocabulary or structure. Perhaps he is indicating to us, "Let me do it myself", or "I'll say it in my own way!"

With the tendency of girls to be superior to boys in many linguistic skills, there are some implications for differential treatment of boys and girls in pre-school and elementary education.

And, finally, it would be interesting to see if ideas supported by members of the Harvard Pre-School Project do spread. If so, educational efforts will include ever-younger children in order to maximize development.

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Implications for Teachers from

"LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT IN EARLY CHILDHOOD"

PROJECT STAFF

1. The relationship of the word to the "thing" by a process of insight and "contiguity" suggests that experience with handling objects, viewing visual representations of various "worlds," field trips, and other devices for extending experience must be associated with the word symbols at the time the child is experiencing the "fact" which the symbol represents.
2. If "verbal behavior" gives the child the first control over his environment, and if that behavior is oral when the child comes to school, then teachers must learn to provide more opportunities for each child to talk, particularly the child who is less articulate than others. Smaller groupings of children, engaged in discussion where every child talks at some time or another several times a day, are absolutely necessary. Much of this talk should be unstructured in order to let each child develop control over *his* experience and also to gain insights into the experiences of others.
3. Research suggests that boys may need more opportunities to talk than girls. Perhaps boys should be grouped with other boys occasionally, and then asked to share the group ideas with the more voluble female of the species!
4. The child who has been "disadvantaged" because he has not been given opportunities for feedback from adults or because he has not been provided with opportunities to talk to adults should be placed in as many situations as possible where the teacher or some other grown-up can simulate a conversation with a natural give-and-take between two people.
5. If one can assume that a child has internalized the structure of his language (the "grammar"), the teacher in primary grade should be able to differentiate between usage resulting from the child's application of the "rules" (as in "buyed" for "bought") and usage that results from imitation of non-standard adult speech.
6. Repetition may be used as a way of reinforcing vocabulary development, but the repetition should place the same usage in differing contexts, oral and written, informal and more "public" situations.
7. Because the young child learns language through imitation of models, it is imperative that the teacher provide a model of speaking and writing, of usage that varies according to the occasion. Over-"correct" or precise language is *not* such a model. However, because all adults unconsciously use language that is non-standard in general, or unacceptable in any given locality, teachers should try to become aware of their own inadequacies and remedy them. In no case should they attempt to make a child's language patterns, acquired as "standard" in other localities, conform to their own.
8. The "shortness" or "longness" of a word is not the factor that determines its usefulness or difficulty for speaking. Teachers should avoid the unnatural selection of "short" words if a longer word is more precise, more familiar, or as easily learned.
9. The first requisite of "good" language teaching is the provision of many opportunities for children to use language often and with increasing security.

DOROTHY EDEL

VIRGINIA SLATTERY

Instructors in
Language Courses

The Nature of Language

In order to make my first point about language, I have often been tempted to shout ***FIRE*** with appropriate volume, facial tension, and gestures in order to clear the room rapidly, but I've never dared to.

If we can imagine such a situation, I think we would grant that our reaction to that first *fire* would be quite different from our reaction to the same word in the context. "We had a very pleasant *fire* in our fireplace last night." In the two cases, the group of sounds that constitutes the word *fire* is being used in two clearly different ways. In the first, the word is being used as a verbal sign, while in the second it is being used as a verbal symbol. Other words, like *fire*, can be used in two different ways—as *sign and as symbol*—but in general, the use of verbal symbols in language is both more frequent and more important than the use of verbal signs—and it is interesting that usually when a word is being used as a sign it is accompanied by special loudness and other bits of behavior, while we tend to think that the use of the word *fire* in the sentence "We had a very pleasant *fire* in our fireplace last night" is "normal."

Sounds as Signs or Symbols

In fact, the use of symbols is what distinguishes human communication from animal communication.[1] Put briefly, a *sign* announces the immediate or imminent presence of the phenomenon to which it refers. The bell ringing in Pavlov's experiment, which caused the dog to salivate in anticipation of food, is another example of a *sign*. Similarly, if the name *James* is uttered in the presence of James' dog, chances are pretty good that the dog will prick up his *ears* and perhaps look for James. If, on the other hand, I say simply *James* to you—and your name isn't James—you might respond by saying "James who?" or "What about him?" or simply look at me peculiarly. You react this way not simply because you can't prick up your ears like the dog, but because you are likely to respond to the sound *James* as a symbol, while the dog interprets the sound *James* as a sign. According to Susanne Langer in *Philosophy in a New Key*, a sign is in some sense a proxy, a stand-in for the object to which it refers, but a symbol is a vehicle for the conception of objects.[2] The use of a symbol evokes in the individual a mental construct or conception of that to which it refers, not the thing itself. This mental conception is derived from experience, of course, and the process by which we come to associate a verbal sound with a mental conception is an extremely complex one, having to do with the acquisition of language when we are children. At its heart lies mystery. But my first point is simply that the use of sound for symbols and the use of sound for signs are two quite different things. Although animals interpret and react to signs, the interpretation of and reaction to symbols is a distinctively *human* characteristic.

Because of the fact that animals respond to signs, not to symbols, while humans respond to both, most linguists and students of language view with skepticism the much publicized attempts to teach chimpanzees to communicate as we do (none have been successful), and also the attempts to discover how dolphins communicate—if we are under the impression that they do so in any way comparable to man's way. Eric Lenneberg, a leading, present-day authority on the biological foundations of language believes that language as we know it—as I am using it now to communicate with you—is ***"species specific."***[3]

Communication through symbols is seen as distinctively human behavior, and there is absolutely no evidence to indicate that any other species behave in an identical way. (Langer claims a "profound gap" lies between animal and human life, clearly marked by "the language line".)[4] Others are not quite so emphatic and see certain language-like qualities in some forms of animal communication, but no linguist I know of acknowledges the possibility that animals use or can be taught to use verbal symbols. (First, then: Language uses verbal symbols. And the word *symbol* as I have defined it makes language a distinctively human activity.)

For centuries, philosophers and laymen alike have enjoyed speculating on the "birth of language"—its origins in the human race.

Such attempts to determine origin have been explorations up a blind alley, and the researcher has eventually faced a blank wall. The ultimate origins of language will probably always be unknown, and the linguist considers that he has enough to do in studying what we can know about language without attempting to solve problems that we have every reason to believe are unsolvable because of their very nature.

Language as System

It's much more interesting and valid—it gives much more insight into the nature of language—for example, to study the development of language in children. Linguists and psychologists have joined efforts in this study, and are coming up with some extremely interesting findings, some of which I am sure will be presented during this project. But for present purposes, we might ask the question, "Why does my four year old son say things like 'I *telled* him I wouldn't give it to him,' 'I see three *deers*,' and so forth. Far from causing anguish, these expressions are very gratifying to me, because they show clearly that he has a good grasp of the *system* of the English language. After all, the vast majority of our verbs form the past tense by the addition of a written (-d) or (-ed), which might *sound* like a /t/ at the end of *walk*, a /d/ at the end of *love*, or an /Id/ at the end of *want*. In saying *telled*, my son is simply extending this most frequent pattern as he will automatically apply it to thousands of verbs he wants to use during the rest of his life. Unfortunately, *tell* is an exception to the pattern—one of two hundred or so verbs that form the past tense in some other way. Similarly, *deer* is an exception to the pattern of forming noun plurals that has become a habit for him. Probably for the next two or three years, my son will be learning the few but rather important exceptions to the major patterns—the system—of our language that he has miraculously learned. From then on, it will be mostly a case of increasing his vocabulary, acquiring a style, and learning how to transfer the whole business that he already knows to the problems of reading and writing—no small task.

My second point is that *a language has system*. My son's mistakes show that he has learned the system, but not the exceptions yet—and sometimes even those exceptions are systematic—that is, they form little systems and patterns in the language. *Tell*, for example, is in a group of about twenty irregular verbs which do add a *d* sound for the past tense, as thousands of regular verbs do, but *tell* has a different vowel for the past from the vowel for the present. It is also one of just a pair of verbs which pattern exactly alike: *tell: sell* in the present *told: sold* in the past, and for the past participle (have *told*, have *sold*).

Language as "Arbitrary"

My third point is that a *language is arbitrary*. As adults, we agonize over learning a foreign language. We have great difficulty in learning the sound system and we must struggle to memorize vocabulary. The grammar is strange, so unlike our own. Lenneberg maintains that the human being has certain predispositions toward learning *a* language, but naturally what language he learns depends on the culture into which he is placed.[5] No German child ever labored over learning German the way I did. The trouble was, of course, that my language habits had been formed by English before I came to German. Not knowing much about linguistics at the time, I asked myself why German can't be more logical, more natural, in short, more like English? Why does the German refer to a dog as *Hund*, and to a young girl as *Madchen* instead of using the words *dog* and *maiden*, which are so much easier to say and more natural. And why, for Heaven's sake is *Madchen* a neuter gender noun in German when anyone can see a

KENNETH ROBB

Madchen is obviously feminine. (A language is arbitrary when it comes to using a particular cluster of sounds to refer to a particular conception.)

Let's take an example from another area of English, *the sound system.* Man is capable of producing a vast number of sounds that might be used in language. Those of you who have ever heard the South African folk-singer Odetta may have been startled when a very loud click occurred in the middle of a word she was singing in her native language. That click is a consonant—it is a speech sound. Each language selects from this vast number of physically possible sounds certain ones that will be crucial in communicating in that language. I know I'm personifying language when I say it selects, but it really isn't the speaker who selects, either. No one ever sat down, of course, and decided which sounds would be used.

But even within the area of *using* the sounds that are in the language, a language is arbitrary. For example, in English, there is a crucial sound called a velar nasal, a phoneme which we call *eng* /ŋ/. It occurs at the end of *walking, sing,* in the middle of *gingham, hanger,* and so forth. We often spell it *ng,* but not always. We spell it simply *n* in *sink* for example. It is a sound different from /n/. The difference between an *n* sound and the *eng* distinguishes words that are otherwise identical, as in *kin-king, sing-sin* and so forth. To produce this velar nasal, you raise the back of your tongue to your velum, way at the back of your mouth. But to produce an *n* sound, you raise the tip of your tongue to a point just behind your upper teeth. The *n* sound occurs at the beginning of words, like *new, know,* etc., in the middle of words—*tinner, kinder,* etc., and at the end of words—*kin, sin,* etc. But there is no English word that begins with an *eng.*, not because it is impossible to pronounce there, but simply because English does not use that sound in word-initial position—it violates the rather arbitrary sound patterns of English.

(Now we have three elements in the definition of a language: *it is arbitrary, it uses symbols, it is systematic.*) A common definition of the notion we are discussing goes like this: "A *language* is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by which members of a community cooperate and interact." (Two elements in this definition remain to be discussed: the word *vocal* and the last phrase which describes the *function* of a language.)

Oral and Written "Language"

As for vocal, the linguist considers the spoken language primary and the written representation of it secondary for two important reasons. First, although there are several hundred languages in the world which are not recorded and have no system of writing, there has never been found a human community that did not speak a language. Language is thus a more widespread phenomenon of human behavior than writing. The linguist's techniques of language description are therefore oriented primarily toward the analysis of language manifest in speech from the lips of living people. Incidentally, linguists assume that a language is adequate to the needs of its speakers. In other words, although there may be societies we may call "primitive," there are no languages which can be called "primitive" except insofar as a language is closely correlated with its culture. Some languages of "primitive" societies are more "complicated" than English and some are "simpler" than English, depending on what criteria of complication and simplicity in language you establish—a very difficult task. But at any rate, possession of a writing system may be the sign of a more advanced civilization than one that lacks writing, but the existence of a written form is no reason for studying it in preference to studying the spoken if speakers are available.

The second reason for taking the spoken language as primary and the written as secondary is that the latter is always an attempt to represent the spoken language. Historically we find that the written English language has always lagged behind the spoken language. We know that changes have occurred in the spoken language before they showed up in the written language. But until the invention of printing, the written language seems almost always to have eventually been modified to reflect changes in the spoken language—it caught up. After the invention of printing, our spelling system was conventionalized, and although certain systematic relationships between the spelling system and the spoken language can be found, in some areas there is a poor

"fit" between the two. The written *gh* in the word *night*, which we would call "silent" now, once represented a sound that has disappeared from English — Chaucer pronounced our word *night*, his *niht*, with a sound before the *t* which is found finally in the German *Bach* or the Scotch *loch*. The spelling was well-motivated for its time, therefore, but it has since been conventionalized and the spelling no longer represents the pronunciation. The places in which there is this poor relationship between the spelling and the spoken word are almost always the result of the spoken language having changed since the "freezing" or codifying of our spelling system. Despite the effort of such spelling reformers as George Bernard Shaw, who have sought to bring about a closer relationship between words as spoken and words as spelled, it appears most likely that we shall continue to spell, for the most part, in the conventional ways; and this, of course, is one of the great problems that teachers in the early years of school have to face. A corollary to the fact the written language does not always represent the spoken language accurately is the fact that there are some very important facets of English which the written form reflects very poorly or not at all.

Now for the last and perhaps the *hardest* phrase in the definition of language: ("a system . . . by which members of a community cooperate and interact").

Language as Communication

Modern linguists have a strong inclination to emphasize the *communicative aspect of language*. However, we should be very conscious that this is not the *only* function of language. In fact, the pioneer American linguist Edward Sapir felt that insufficient emphasis was being placed on the *expressive function of language*, and this misemphasis has probably not been adequately corrected. The expressive function of language is an aspect that Susanne Langer explores to considerable depth. Not only does man have the *ability* to manipulate symbols, according to Langer, he has the *need* to do so. Man is basically a symbol-manipulating animal.

Langer states, "What gives a child the present stimulus to talk? Surely not the prospect of acquiring a useful tool toward his future social relations! The impulse must be motivated by a present need, not a prospective one . . . There must be immediate satisfaction in this strange exercise (of using words), as there is in running and kicking. The effect of words on other people is only a secondary consideration . . . Speech is in fact," Langer goes on, "the readiest active termination of that basic process in the human brain which may be called *symbolic transformation of experience*. The fact that it makes elaborate communication with others possibly becomes important at a somewhat later stage."[7]

It is certainly a basic function of schools to enable students to send and receive messages clearly; that is, to communicate. This aim may, in fact, be achieved most effectively through emphasizing the expressive aspect of language and by nurturing the idea that the study of language can be fun. I find the Baltimore County Language Program extremely interesting, because, from what I have seen, *fun* is an important aspect in the program that is being carried on here.

I am looking forward to learning from you some of the ingenious ways, tricky ways, excellent ways, in which you can arouse and stimulate this basic, though perhaps latent, interest in language which I think all students have.

Footnote References

[1]My discussion of this point, along with some of the illustrations, is drawn from Susanne K. Langer, *Philosophy in a New Key* (New York: New American Library, 1951), pp. 54-75.

[2]Ibid., p. 61.

[3]Eric H. Lenneberg, "The Capacity for Language Acquisition," *The Structure of Language*, ed. Jerry A. Fodor and Jerrold J. Katz (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1964), p. 600.

[4]"Speculations on the Origins of Speech," *Philosophical Sketches* (New York: New American Library, 1964), p. 33.

[5]Lenneberg, pp. 589-592.

[6]E. H. Sturtevant, *An Introduction to Linguistic Science* (New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press, 1961), p. 2.

[7]Langer, *Philosophy in a New Key*, p. 48.

LANGUAGE AS A CODE

BONNIE SHIPLEY*

A. Underlying Generalization
Language is a code which is understood when it is familiar.

B. Objectives—Pupils should
1. Demonstrate their understanding of the word "code" by giving examples of codes they know about.
2. State that language is a code.
3. "Break" the codes used in the lesson.

C. Introduction — Pupils look and listen as the teacher
1. Taps out Morse Code on a key.
2. Puts a zip code on an envelope.
3. Gives a secret knock.
4. Shows code picture writing.
5. Shows a number code.

D. Developmental Activities
1. State: All of the things I did or showed you are certain kinds of _____. (Write the word "codes" on the board.) What does this word mean to you? When have you used one? (Discussion.)
2. State: Everyone in this room has at one time used a code. You may not think of it as a code because it is so easy or common to you now, but at one time it wasn't so. I'm going to take you back a few years to see if you can remember when you experienced certain things.
   Play a tape recording of a baby learning to talk; of a first-grade reading skills lesson.
   Ask: What code is it that all of us have and use every day? What is Language? (Code made up of words or symbols.)
3. Continue: Keep this word "code" in mind and listen to another language code. Be ready to tell me the one difference between our language code and this language code.
   Play a tape recording of a person speaking a foreign language.
   Ask: What is the difference between our language code and this code? (Understanding)
4. Continue: Listen to each of these paragraphs and be ready to tell what group of people might use this code.
   a. What's happening, Baby? What is your bag? You're out of your ever-livin' tree. I gotta go earn my bread. Hang ten and make the scene. You're really "psychedelic."
   b. The surgeons began to prepare themselves for the tonsilectomy. After scrubbing, they entered the surgically clean operating room which smelled of anesthetics. Their instruments were arranged on a table, the patient was already under. His pulse and blood pressure were normal. The plasma and oxygen were ready. "Scalpel," the surgeon said.
5. Ask: Can you think of anyone else who might have a vocabulary or language code different from our everyday code because of his occupation?
   Have two previously prepared pupils speak a few sentences into the microphone assuming the roles of (a) a car salesman, (b) an astronaut in a space launching
   Which of the words used made you think of the person's occupation?

E. Conclusion
1. Generalization
   Ask: What have we found out about language? (Record statements.)
2. Concluding activity (optional)
   Game: I'm going to change our language code a little. I will make up a new name for some object in the room and talk to you about it without ever mentioning its old name. See if you can discover my code.
   Pupils may continue the game by having a group make up a new name for a familiar object and talking about it until the code is broken.

F. Materials
1. Morse Code key
2. Cardboard envelope
3. Picture writing and number writing
4. Tape recordings of baby talk, a first-grade lesson, a foreign language
5. Tape recorder with microphone

*Planned and taught by Mrs. Bonnie Shipley, Berkshire Elementary School, Grade 4

WORDS AS SYMBOLS

JEANNETTE CLOPPER*

A. Underlying Generalization

Words are one kind of symbol, made up of sounds that stand for things, ideas, and people. To use words accurately, people must agree on what the words stand for.

B. Objectives—Pupils should

1. Recognize that words are symbols that stand for things, ideas, and people.
2. Be aware that it is necessary to know the code in order to communicate.
3. Show understanding of the nature of words by suggesting "rules" for making up a new word for their vocabulary.
4. Use these rules to make up a plausible word to add to their vocabulary.

C. Introduction—The teacher may

1. Show pictures and visual objects, asking the class to name each object shown.
2. Ask why they were able to name the objects and pictures.
3. Show an object that is unknown to the class. Ask why, though they can see the object, they cannot name it.
4. Tell the class that today they are going to learn more about words and what they stand for.

D. Developmental Activities

1. Discuss what comes to the pupils' minds when they see these words on the board:

   Thanksgiving — Softball (or any familiar game)

   John Unitas — Mr. Luco (teacher in school)

   gift — table — letter — clock
2. Discuss such words as *bravery*, *fear*, *courtesy*, *patriotism*, *sportsmanship*, and *selfishness*.
3. Point out on the board a list of mathematical symbols the pupils have learned and ask what the symbols mean.

   Relate words to math matical symbols to help the pupils discover that words, too, are symbols because they stand for something.
4. Play a game with the class. A small group leaves the room while those remaining switch the names of objects in the room (*Window* 's renamed *desk*). Listening to what's being said when they return, they guess what's been renamed. ("Please raise the *desk*; it's too warm in here.")

   Help the class realize that if we are to communicate effectively, the speaker and listeners must know the words and what they mean.
5. Ask: If you wanted to add a new word to the language of the class, what would you have to do? What requirements would the word have to meet? The word would have to serve a need . . . be useable . . . have a meaning agreed upon by the users . . . be pronounceable . . . sound like English . . . be a symbol for a thing, person, or idea.

E. Conclusion

1. Generalization
   a. Ask the class to give a good definition of "word."
   b. Ask what is necessary if people want to communicate effectively.
2. Concluding activity
   a. Have each pupil (or small groups of pupils) make up a new word to add to the vocabulary of the class, following the rules set up by the class.

      They should write the word, give its form class, show how it can be used in sentences.

      If possible, the pupils should also show how its form class can be changed by using it in a variety of ways.
   b. These words will be used before the class the next day. The class will then choose a word and try to make it a part of their vocabulary.

F. Materials

1. Pictures (e.g., bird, insect, nurse, doctor and patient, gas station, scientist, mailbox, library)
2. Objects (e.g., light bulb, soap, golf club, scarf, ping pong ball, magnet, flask, geometric figure, stapler)
3. An object too old or too specialized to be known to the class.

*Planned and taught by Mrs. Jeannette Clopper, Catonsville Elementary School, Grade 6

LANGUAGE AND EXPERIENCE — WORD CONNOTATIONS

EVELYN JAMES*

A. Underlying Generalization

Words acquire connotations as a result of individual or group associations with them.

B. Objectives — Pupils should

1. Point out, in samples of literature, advertisements, and conversations, words that were used purposely to create certain feelings.
2. Reach the generalization that words may be used to persuade others.
3. Point out in a passage of literature words which an author has used to produce a desired feeling.

C. Introduction

Distribute to the pupils copies of this list of words, which is also written on the chalk board.

1. friend	7. money
2. ice cream	8. thrill
3. snakes	9. Christmas
4. swimming	10. table
5. house	11. cry
6. spinach	12. school

Read the list, slowly, having the pupils mark each word according to these instructions:

> Mark a plus beside a word that gives a pleasant feeling; a zero beside a word that gives an unpleasant feeling; and no mark at all beside a word that gives no particular feeling.

When the pupils have completed the activity, discuss why certain words gave them good or bad feelings.

Ask: What determines the kinds of feeling you have about these words? (Past experiences with the thing or activity) Why did many of you not mark words like table and house? (Experiences with these things are neither very happy nor very unhappy — just ordinary.)

D. Developmental Activities

1. Show the pupils the second list of words on the board.

plump, fat	tall, beanpole
slender, skinny	talkative, loudmouth
small, shrimp	timid, shy

Ask: Which in each pair would you rather be — and why? Which of the two words might you use to describe a friend? When might you use the alternate word?

Discussion of their word choices should help the pupils to conclude that words are deliberately chosen to create certain feelings.

2. Suggest that the pupils keep the foregoing conclusion in mind as they listen for words that cause them to have a certain feeling about the product being advertised.

After playing the tape, list the words that gave the pupils an impression about the product. Then show the picture with the mental picture the words gave them. Repeat this procedure with another recording.

Show the class other pictorial advertisements. After reading each advertisement to them, have them pick out words that have been used to create certain feelings in order to sell the product.

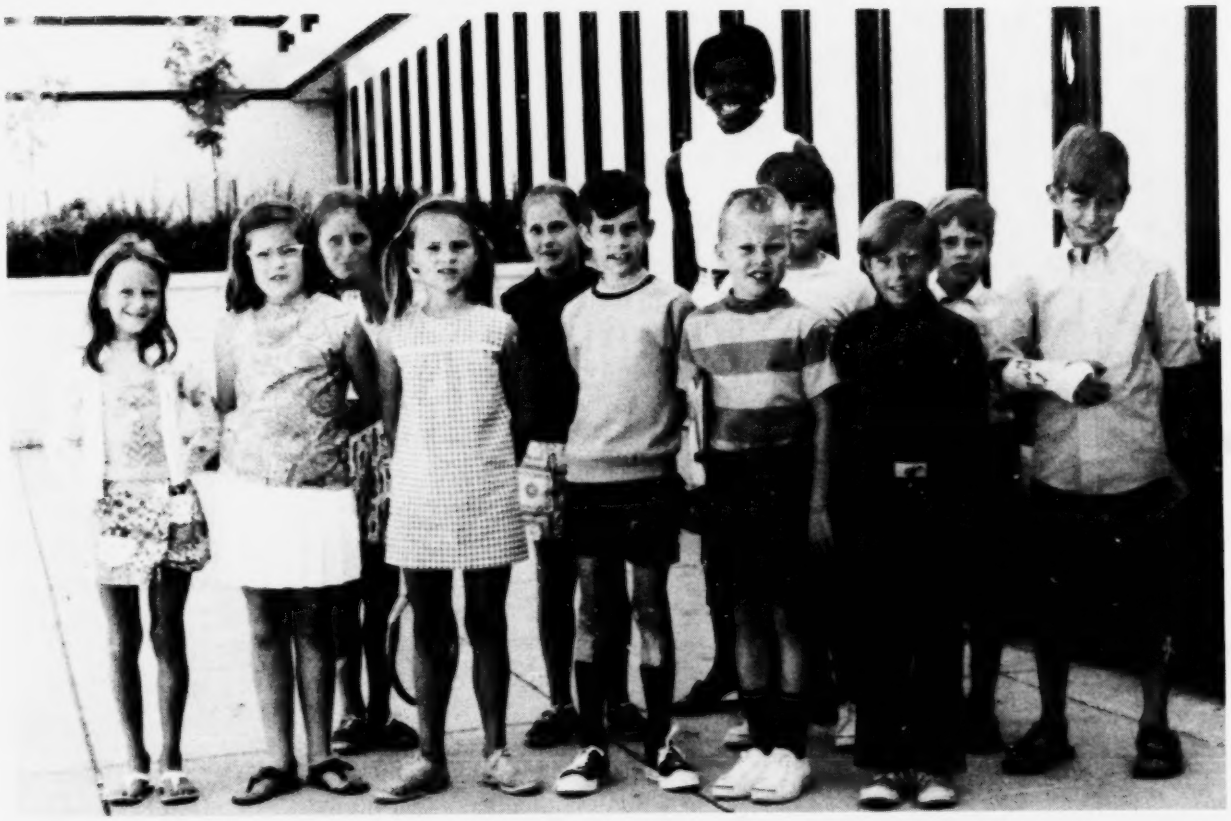
Finally, show the class a picture of a product, with all advertising covered. Suggest that the pupils try to think of words that might sell the product. List these words on the board. Then compare the words suggested by the pupils with those actually used in the advertisement.

3. Ask the pupils if they have ever used language to try to persuade someone to do something he didn't particularly want to do. Then involve them in a "pretend" situation:

> Suppose you already own a bicycle but you would like to have a new one. How might you convince your parents that you need a new one?

Divide the class into two groups: One will tell Mother and Dad what's wrong with the old bicycle; the other will tell about the good points of the new one. As pupils from each group give words, list these in two columns on the board. Help the pupils see that the words from one column called forth unpleasant ones. From this observation they should be able to draw the following conclusion: *The*

*Planned and taught by Mrs. Evelyn James, Victory Villa Elementary School, Grade 3



feelings that words give to people can often persuade them to do—or not to do—something.

4. In the poem "Lone Dog," Irene Rutherford McLeod uses certain words to give people a feeling about the dog she describes. Ask them to listen for these words as the poem is read to them. Following a discussion of the poet's choice of words, ask for some words she might have used if she had wanted to give us feelings about an entirely different kind of dog. Through questioning, help the pupils to form the generalization that *a good author uses words to create certain feelings in the listener or reader.*

E. Conclusion

Ask the pupils what discoveries they have made about language from today's lesson. Discussion should bring out the following points:

Words cause us to have certain feelings because of our past associations with the words.

Some words are deliberately used to create certain feelings in us.

Those who write literature use words to create certain feelings.

F. Materials

1. "Lone Dog" (Irene Rutherford McLeod in *Wider Than the Sky*)
2. Tape recorder; tape recording of commercials
3. Pictorial advertisements of products

Evelyn James has been teaching in a pilot school, Victory Villa, since the beginning of the current experimental curriculum development program in the County. In addition to teaching the summer demonstration class in the EPDA Institute, she has also served as an instructor in the introductory language course.

Understanding How Language Works:

GUIDE TO TEACHING THE STRUCTURE OF LANGUAGE

The curriculum guides on which the elementary language program is based were developed by committees of supervisors, administrators, and teachers working in summer production workshops of 1964, 1965, and 1966 sponsored by the Baltimore County Public Schools. It was the innovative nature of the guides that produced the need to extend the inservice program in linguistic approaches to the teaching of the English language in elementary school. The County piloted the initial inservice courses, and the EPDA project, which this publication describes, made it possible to improve and extend the inservice course offerings.

A Guide to the Study of the English Language, K-6 provides the sequence in the structure of English in the form of concepts for each grade, arranged sequentially according to difficulty level. The guide expands these concepts with detailed examples of procedures and materials recommended for developing skills in language use as well as concepts about the nature of language itself. These concepts are given below to furnish an overview of the program on which the sample lesson plans that follow are based.

KINDERGARTEN and GRADE ONE

1. Words go together to make sentences.
   a. We talk in sentences.
   b. The end of a spoken sentence may be recognized by typical intonation clues.
   c. Intonation patterns help to identify sentences in a paragraph as they are read aloud.
2. Word order is the most important grammatical device for showing meaning.
   a. Words can be arranged to make meaningful sentences.
   b. Meaning can be changed by changing word order.
   c. Word order can be changed without changing meaning.
3. Written statements begin with a capital and end with a period, question mark or exclamation mark.
   a. A sentence may be recognized in printed material by terminal punctuation.
   b. Written statements begin with a capital and end with a period.
4. Simple statements are usually made up of two parts.
   a. The usual statement pattern in English is subject-predicate.
   b. Complete subject-predicate statements are not always necessary to convey meaning.
5. *And* is used to join words.
6. Certain words are classed as nouns.
   a. Nouns are words that name things.
   b. *A*, *the*, and *an* signal nouns.
   c. People's names are nouns and are capitalized.
   d. Nouns can be singular or plural.
7. Any word that fits the frame "Let's _____" is a verb.
8. A binary cut separates the two parts of a simple subject-predicate statement.

GRADE TWO

1. Word order is the most important grammatical device to show meaning.
2. Terminal punctuation and commas indicate where pauses occur in spoken word groups.
   a. Terminal punctuation indicates pauses between sentences.
   b. Commas indicate pauses within sentences.
3. Statements, requests, and questions are three kinds of sentences.
   a. Requests, questions, and statements require different kinds of responses.
   b. Written questions end with question marks; written statements and requests end with periods.
   c. Words that often begin questions are: *what*, *where*, *who*, *how*, *why*, and *when*.
4. Nouns can be identified in a number of ways.

a. Nouns can be identified by associated determiners.
b. Names of special places are nouns.
c. Nouns can be singular or plural.
d. Singular nouns add *'s* to show possession.
e. A noun is a word that fits in the frame "(The) _____ is/are here."

5. Verbs have more than one form: the base form; the *-s* form; the *-ing* form; the past form.
6. The first part of a simple statement usually contains a noun and is called a noun phrase; the second part contains a verb and is called a verb phrase.
7. Verbs are the most essential words in sentences.
   a. The verb is the most essential word in the verb phrase.
   b. The verb is the most essential word in a sentence.
8. Pronouns can take the place of nouns and/or noun groups.
   a. *I*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *we*, and *they* are pronouns and can be used in place of nouns and/or noun groups.
   b. The noun or noun group to which the pronoun refers determines the choice of pronoun.
9. *And* is used to connect words and groups of words.
10. Modifiers are words that make the meaning of nouns and verbs more exact.
    a. Modifiers make the meaning of nouns more exact.
    b. Modifiers make the meaning of verbs more exact.

GRADE THREE

1. There are many differences between speaking and writing.
2. Some punctuation is an attempt to show where pauses are made in spoken word groups.
3. Nouns can be identified in a number of ways.
   a. Nouns may be identified by associated determiners.
   b. A noun is a word that fits in the frame: (The) _____ is (are) here.
   c. Nouns may be singular or plural.
   d. Nouns may show possession by the addition of *'s* or *'*.
   e. Nouns may be common or proper.
4. Verbs can be identified in a number of ways.
   a. Verbs can be identified by their form: the base form; the *-s* form; the *-ing* form; the past form.
   b. Verbs can be identified by their position in a statement.
5. Modifiers are words that make the meaning of nouns and verbs more exact.
   a. Modifiers make the meaning of nouns more exact.
   b. Modifiers make the meaning of verbs more exact.
6. The two parts of a sentence are the noun phrase and the verb phrase; the noun phrase is the subject; the verb phrase is the predicate.
7. The base form of a verb in a phrase or sentence may be found by asking what form is used with *must*.
8. The verb *be* has more forms than any other verb.
   a. *Am*, *is*, *are*, *was* and *were* are forms of the verb *be*.
   b. A particular form of the verb *be* must be used with a personal pronoun in the subject position.
9. Two basic sentence patterns are NV and NVN.
   a. One basic sentence pattern is NV.
   b. Another basic sentence pattern is NVN.
10. Using the past form of a verb is one way to show past time.
11. Personal pronouns are words that take the place of nouns and/or noun groups.
    a. The pronouns *I*, *he*, *she*, *we*, and *they* occur in the subject.
    b. The pronouns *me*, *him*, *her*, *us*, and *them* may occur in the predicate.
    c. The pronouns *you* and *it* occur in both the subject and predicate.
12. Personal pronouns have more than one form that can replace the same noun or noun group; these forms are not interchangeable.
13. Nouns are more exact than pronouns.
14. The *-s* form of a verb is the form that is used with the pronouns *he*, *she*, and *it*, and with any nouns or noun groups these pronouns can replace.
15. Personal pronouns used as subjects with *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, and *were* can form contractions.
16. The coordinator *and* connects words or

groups of words that are similar in form.
   a. *And* may be used to connect nouns, single-word verbs and single-word modifiers.
   b. *And* may be used to connect sentences.
   c. *And* may be used to coordinate predicates when the subject is the same.
   d. *And* may be used to coordinate subjects when the predicates are the same.
17. Modifiers add meaning to nouns and verbs and expand the sentence.
   a. Single-word modifiers or a series of single modifiers may be used to make nouns more exact and to expand the sentence.
   b. Single-word verb modifiers may be used to expand sentences.
18. *Because* is frequently used to join two short sentences. The use of *because* in a sentence needs special attention.
19. There are various ways to make a negative statement.

GRADE FOUR

1. Stress, pitch, and juncture (pausing) work together to make the intonation pattern of the sentence.
2. Nouns can be identified in these ways:
   by using substitution frames
   by determiners
   by inflectional endings
   by derivational endings.
3. Verbs can be identified in these ways:
   by using the substitution frames
   by inflectional endings
   by using the *must* clue.
4. The simple predicate is the verb and its auxiliaries.
5. Most verbs have four forms.
6. Three basic sentence patterns are: NV, N^1 V N^1 , and N^1 V N^2 .
7. Time can be expressed by time words or by the predicate.
8. Personal pronouns can take the place of nouns or noun groups.
9. Statements can be changed to questions:
   by intonation
   by using question words
   by moving the auxiliary.
10. Adjectives can be identified:
   by using substitution frames
   by intensifiers
   by inflectional endings.
11. Adjectives help make the meaning of nouns more exact.
12. Another basic sentence pattern is N V Adj.
13. Basic sentences can be expanded by coordination and modification.
14. Some of the characteristics of nouns are:
   They may be classified as common or proper.
   They may be classified as concrete or abstract.
   They may show possession.

GRADE FIVE

1. The simple predicate is composed of the verb and one or more auxiliaries.
2. Statements with no auxiliaries in the simple predicate may be changed to questions by means of the *do* transformation.
3. Some verbs may function as either linking or non-linking verbs.
4. Adverbs are modifiers that tell *how*, *when*, or *where*.
5. Adverbs are frequently movable.
6. Intensifiers qualify the meaning of an adverb.
7. Certain words may occur between the auxiliary and the main verb but are never included in the simple predicate.
8. A prepositional phrase is a group of words that begins with a preposition and ends with a noun.
9. Groups of words may function as a noun in a noun position.
10. Sentences can be expanded through coordination of words, group of words, and simple sentences.
11. One form-class may function in the place of another in the sentence:
   A noun may function as an adjective.
   A verb may function as a noun or as an adjective.
   An adjective may function as a noun.
12. Words that are the same in spelling and pronunciation may belong to more than one form-class.
13. Certain derivational suffixes are associated with verbs: *-ate*, *-fy*, *-ize* and *-en*.
14. Certain derivational suffixes are often associated with nouns: *-ion*, *-sion*, *-er*, *-or*, and *-ship*.
15. Certain derivational suffixes are asso-

ciated with adverbs: *-ward*, *-time*, *-way*, *-where*, *-side*, *-wise*, and *-long*.

GRADE SIX

Unit I: Distinguishing between the Characteristics and Functions of Form-Class and Structure Words

1. Form-class words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) are words which give meaning to a sentence by concrete reference to reality (denotation).
2. The form-class words are able to change their form by adding inflectional endings.
3. Form-class words may be recognized by their position in the sentence.
4. Sentences must contain some form-class words to convey meaning.
5. A verb is essential in every written statement.
6. Some form-class words which act as modifiers are not essential to the meaning of the sentence.
7. Families of form-class words can be created by adding appropriate derivational affixes to a root word.
8. Words which do not change their form are called *structure words*.
9. Structure words make apparent the relationship among the form-classes: they make clear the structure of the sentence.
10. Because structure words have little lexical meaning, sentences may not be composed of them.
11. Changing the structure words in a sentence affects the relationships among the form-classes.
12. In speech, form-class words usually receive heavier stress than structure words.
13. Grammatical relationships are established by the word order and by the position of structure words within a sentence.

Unit II: Teaching the Parts of Verbs

1. Most verbs have only four possible forms: root, *-s*, *-ing*, and past form (usually *-ed*).
2. A few commonly used verbs have five forms.
3. The verb *be* has eight forms.

Unit III: Teaching the Expansion of Sentences through Modification

1. Single words (adjectives and adverbs) and groups of words (phrase) may function as modifiers.
2. Some of the groups of words that modify nouns are called adjective phrases.
3. Some of the groups of words that modify verbs are called adverb or adverbial phrases.
4. Adjectival phrases follow the nouns they modify.
5. Adverbial phrases are frequently, but but not always, movable.
6. Moving an adverbial phrase into the position normally occupied by an adjectival phrase can change the meaning of a sentence.

Unit IV: Teaching Subordination

1. A clause is a group of words with a subject and a predicate that agree in number and person.
2. A subordinate clause is a subject-predicate group that modifies a word in the base sentence.
3. A subordinator, which introduces the subordinate clause, is an essential part of a clause.
4. The subordinate clause that answers *how*, *when*, *why*, or *where* (adverbial) is often a movable part of the sentence.
5. A clause receives greater emphasis when placed at the end of a sentence.

"Here and there a touch of good grammar for picturesqueness."
"The difference between the right word and the almost right word is the difference between lightning and the lightning bug."

—MARK TWAIN

"Words are the clothes that thoughts wear — only the clothes."

—SAMUEL BUTLER

DISTINGUISHING BETWEEN VERBS AND NOUNS BY USE OF "LET'S" FRAMES

PLANNED AND TAUGHT BY MRS. JOAN MCGURL, RIVERVIEW SCHOOL, GRADE 1.

A. Generalization

1. Words that name something are nouns.
2. Words that fit the frame "Let's ____" are verbs.

B. Purpose – Pupils should be able to

1. Identify words on cards as nouns or verbs.
2. Tell how they knew each was a noun or a verb.
3. Check their own answer.
4. Identify nouns or verbs in sentences read to them.
5. Name some nouns and verbs of their own.
6. Make the generalizations.

C. Introduction

1. Distribute word cards, some of which contain a noun and some a verb.
2. Show pupils the "noun box" and "verb box" which will be used to check their answers. In the "noun box" are objects to go with the noun card. In the "verb box" is a card with "Let's", which fits each verb card like a puzzle piece. (See Materials.)

D. Developmental Activities

1. Each pupil will identify the word on his card as a noun or verb, tell how he knew this, and check his answer in the appropriate box.
2. Place sentences on the board. The pupils will identify the nouns and verbs in each. Make a little game out of this by keeping a score.
   a. I sing a song.
   b. We throw a ball.
   c. They dig in the sandbox.
   d. You chase the dog.
   e. I ride in a train.
   f. I eat an apple.
   g. They walk to the store.
   h. I talk to the baby.
   i. We play with a doll.
   j. You run up the street.

   Ask the pupils to name some nouns they know; some verbs.

E. Conclusion

1. Ask: What kinds of words did we work with today? How did we recognize nouns? How did we recognize verbs?

F. Materials

1. Word Cards: some nouns, some verbs; and one with "Let's" which fits each verb card like a puzzle

   Let's { sing

2. Noun and verb boxes
3. Objects for each noun.

IDENTIFICATION OF NOUNS BY USE OF THE NOUN FRAME

PLANNED AND TAUGHT BY MRS. ALICE S. CHRISTHILF, FRANKLIN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, GRADE 2.

A. Generalization

A noun is a word which fits in the frame. "(The) _____ is here." "(The) _____ are here."

B. Purpose – Pupils should be able to:

1. Identify determiners and nouns in a sentence and test these nouns in the substitution frames.
2. Identify nouns in sentences with no determiners by using the substitution frames.
3. State the generalization (above).
4. Select singular and plural nouns to insert in the noun substitution frames.

C. Introduction

1. Place a cardboard picture frame before the class with three pictures along side (one too large, one too small, one which fits). Ask the pupils which picture fits the frame.
2. Tell the pupils that today they are going to learn about a new kind of frame.

D. Developmental Activities

1. Show a chart on which are printed the following sentences, which will serve as substitution frames for nouns:

   The ____ is here. The ____ are here.

   Ask the pupils to supply words which would fit in the blanks to complete the sentence. Write the words sup-

plied in a list below each frame. Let the pupils read each list and think of how all the words are alike. (Apply known clues to identify them as nouns: nouns are words that name things; determiners point to nouns.)

2. Have the following sentences with determiners printed on a chart. Ask the pupils to identify the nouns and test them in the substitution frame.
   a. A snake crawled along the wall.
   b. His sister saw the game.
   c. The boys put some stones on the table.
   d. Her coat was torn.
   e. My mother baked some buns.
3. Follow the same procedure as in Activity 2, using nouns without determiners. Have the nouns identified using substitution frames.
   a. Girls like funny games.
   b. Tadpoles wiggled all around.
   c. Big clouds rolled by.
   d. They cooked fish for supper.
   e. Leaves blew into piles.
4. Pass out cards on which nouns are printed; some plural, some singular. Have the pupils identify the words as nouns by using the substitution frame. Place the words under the frame where they fit. When all nouns are placed, ask the pupils to decide which kind of nouns is under the first sentence (singular), and what kind is under the second sentence (plural).
5. Distribute printed cards containing words that are not nouns. The pupils will discover that these do not fit the substitution frames.

E. Conclusion

1. Ask: "Do you remember earlier in our lesson we talked about picture frames? What did we do with the pictures?" (Found one to fit) Point to substitution frame. Ask: "Could we say our sentences are a kind of frame? What did we find would fit in these frames? (words) What kinds of words fit our frames? (nouns) Can someone tell us how we use these frames to help us with our nouns?" (Generalization: If a word fits in one of the frames it is a noun.)
2. Distribute a duplicated exercise. Read the directions and have the class do one example together. As the pupils work on the exercise give individual help as needed.

F. Materials

The following reproduced exercise.

Match the nouns to the right frame.

The ____ is here. The ____ are here.

cats	dog
girl	books
trees	

Use the noun frame to find the words that are nouns. Draw a line around the nouns.

ants	was
this	lamp
dish	shoes

Lesson Plans

NOUNS AS ADJECTIVE SUBSTITUTES

PLANNED AND TAUGHT BY MISS SIDENA BOLLIAS, SENECA ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, GRADE 5.

A. Generalization

A noun may function as an adjective.

B. Purpose—Pupils should be able to:

1. Identify a noun that acts as an adjective by the way it is used in a sentence.
2. Use the term *adjective substitute* to identify nouns functioning as adjectives.

C. Introduction

1. Show the pupils a coke bottle. Ask how it is usually used. Then place a flower in the bottle. Ask: How is the bottle being used now? Finally, show the class two bottles filled with sand and place several books between them. Ask: How are they being used now?
2. Ask: How many know Mrs. Whitlock? What does she do in our school? (Teaches) Does she have a regular classroom of her own? (No) Does she try to do things similar to the way I do? (Yes) What do we call Mrs. Whitlock? (A substitute teacher)

D. Developmental Activities

1. Show a transparency with several pairs of sentences in which the same noun is used first as a noun and then as an adjective substitute.

a. The smoke damaged the building.
He sent a *smoke* signal as a warning.
b. We study the history of Maryland.
He was late for his *history* class.
c. A tasty apple fell from the tree.
Mother baked an *appie* pie for dinner.
d. Mary expected an album for her birthday.
Bob's *birthday* party was a surprise.

Have the pupils identify the underlined word in the first sentence as a noun. Ask: What are the italicized words in the second sentence of each pair? Are they being used like nouns? (No; they are in the adjective position before the noun, e.g., He sent a signal, not a smoke.) Are they adjectives? (No) Try them in the adjective frame. What are these words then? (Nouns) What is Mrs. Whitlock? (A substitute teacher) What name could we use for these nouns that are acting like adjectives? (Adjective substitute)

2. Divide the pupils into two groups. Group one will leave the room and tape record sentences using one word as a noun and as an adjective substitute. Words to be used:
card bird valley brick
Group two will work on a duplicated exercise similar to the one that follows, filling in a word in two sentences and identifying it as a noun or an adjective substitute.

a. John's team won the _____ game by a score of 21-0. (football)
He kicked the _____ fifty yards.
b. Mother was pressing the clothes with an electric _____. (iron)
There was a(n) _____ fence around the electric plant.
c. The bulb burned out so we had no _____. (light)
Mother searched for the _____ bulbs on the pantry shelf.
d. Mr. Brown came to speak to us about the _____ program. (space)
Two astronauts are preparing to go into _____.
e. The _____ broke the window when Tom threw it. (stone)
They built a _____ wall around the cemetery.

D. Conclusion

1. In response to the tape made by group one pupils, group two will hold up individual "Every-Pupil-Response" cards. (The cards will show two responses: NOUN, on one side and ADJECTIVE SUBSTITUTE on the other.)
2. Ask: Can one form class act as another form class? What example can you give? (A noun may act as an adjective.) What do we call a noun that functions as an adjective? (Adjective substitute)

DERIVATIONAL SUFFIXES ASSOCIATED WITH ADVERBS

PLANNED AND TAUGHT BY MRS. JO ANNE RUTHERFORD, RIVERVIEW ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, GRADE 5.

A. Generalization

Certain derivational suffixes are associated with adverbs: *-ward*, *-time*, *-way*, *-where*, *-side*, *-wise*, and *-long*.

B. Purpose—Pupils should be able to:

1. Select adverbs by using previously taught clues (Adverbs are modifiers that tell how, when, or where; adverbs are frequently movable; intensifiers qualify the meaning of an adverb.)
2. Identify "new" adverbs by using previously taught clues.
3. Identify derivational suffixes listed and make the generalization (above).
4. Use these newly learned clues to find adverbs in stories from their literature books.

C. Introduction

1. Ask the pupils to recall previously taught clues by which they can identify adverbs: Adverbs are modifiers

that tell how, when, or where; adverbs are frequently movable; intensifiers qualify the meaning of an adverb. Write the following sentences on the board. Have the pupils identify the adverbs. Ask: "What clues help determine the adverbs?"

a. The yellow duck quacked loudly.
b. The gray squirrel played nearby.
c. The hen's eggs will hatch soon.
d. He swam most vigorously through the river.
e. He peered around the building extremely cautiously.

2. Tell the pupils that today we are going to learn about another clue to the identification of adverbs.

D. Developmental Activities

1. Show a transparency of the following sentences. Have the pupils write down the words they think are the adverbs, using one of the above previously taught clues.
   a. The frog leaped forward.
      The water bug crawled backwards.
   b. Canaries sing sometimes at night.
      Mocking birds chirp anytime they hear another bird.
   c. The frightened man drove away in a hurry.
      His wheels skidded sideways.
   d. Trash and tin cans are thrown anywhere.
      Everywhere you look, the roads are littered.
   e. Jack's bike slid lengthwise.
      He sprawled crosswise on top of the frame of his bike.
   f. The carrier plane bounced headlong into the ship's side.
      The damaged plane floated along near the aircraft carrier.

   Identify the adverbs. What clues did you use? What new clues did you discover?
2. Place the following sentences on the board. Pupils will locate adverbs and tell what clues they used.
   a. You may come anytime to see me.
   b. She ran halfway home in the rain.
   c. The dog looked everywhere for his bone.
   d. George ran outside to see Pete.
   e. My Persian cat scampered away.
   f. Please come inside.
   g. Afterwards, we had a hotdog and coke.
   h. The baby raccoons followed their mother everywhere.
   i. The little boy threw his bottle away.
   j. The pictures were arranged lengthwise.

E. Conclusion

1. Ask the pupils to list the derivational suffixes associated with adverbs: -ward, -time, -way, -where, -side, -wise, -long. Write them on the board and have the pupils add the new clue to their notebooks.
2. Select a story that the class has recently read and have the pupils find in it adverbs containing these derivational endings. Ask the pupils to state other clues that help identify them as adverbs.

Lesson Plans

". . . But what can you do for the slithy toves that are gyring and gimbling in my wabe?"

OUTLINE OF COURSES OFFERED UNDER EPDA, 1969-70

Course	Program Purpose	Topics	References
Introductory Course: Teaching the English Language in Elementary School	This course, designed for teachers new to the program, includes lectures, reading, discussion and intensive study of the county guides. Demonstration lessons are provided as part of the program.	1. Nature and Uses of Language 2. Language Change 3. Trends in the Teaching of Grammar 4. Phonology and Morphology 5. Noun Concepts, Grades 1-6 6. Presentation of Guide: Relating English Language Concepts to Composition and Literature 7. Verb Concepts, Grades 1 to 4 8. Verb Concepts, Grades 5 and 6 9. Intonation 10. Sentence Concepts; Basic Sentence Patterns 11. Modification Concepts 12. Phrasal Modifiers 13. Coordination and Subordination 14. Dialect and Usage 15. Presentation of Projects	Conlin, David A. *A Modern Approach To Teaching English*, New York: American Book Company, 1968. Hogan, Robert F. *The English Language in the School Program*, Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966. Horn, Robert E. *Language Change and Communication*, Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1967.
Summer Institute for Administrators	The 4 weeks' program includes lectures by college consultants, presentations by staff members, demonstration lessons with elementary pupils, film showings, reading and discussion, examination of commercially produced materials, and a thorough introduction to the county guides. Administrators with previous training or knowledge of the guides may develop projects useful for the implementation of the program during the following school year.	1. English and the English Program 2. The Nature of Language 3. Language Development in Early Childhood 4. The Sounds of English 5. The Structure of English: Word Classes and Syntax 6. The History of English 7. Dialect and Language Change 8. Problems and Standards of Usage 9. Attitude Toward Language and Language Teaching: Traditional or Modern? 10. Language in the Total Elementary School Program 11. Overview of Transformational Grammar 12. Reading and Linguistics	Conlin, David A., *A Modern Approach to Teaching English*, New York: American Book Company, 1968. Hogan, Robert F. *The English Language in the School Program*, Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966. Stageberg, Norman C. *An Introductory English Grammar*, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1966.

Advanced Course: Linguistic Theory and Its Applications To The Teaching of English

This course combines lectures on language theory with practical applications to the teaching of oral and written composition and literature. Practice sessions with workbook exercises in grammar, for greater depth of subject matter control, are provided for elementary and secondary teachers who feel the need for group discussion and assistance.

1. The Nature of Language
2. Relationship between Phonetics and Phonemics
3. Spoken and Written English; Spelling and Intonation
4. The Morpheme
5. Words and Word Creation Processes in English
6. American English Dialects
7. Distinguishing between Grammar and Usage
8. Why "Parts of Speech"?
9. Basic Sentence Patterns: Expansions and Substitutions
10. Modification and Constituent Analysis
11. Relationships Among Traditional, Structural and Transformational Grammars
12. Transformational Grammar I and II
13. Reports on Individual and Group Projects

Bolinger, Dwight. *Aspects of Language*, New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1968.

Jacobs, Roderick A. and Rosenbaum, Peter S. *Grammar I and II*, Boston: Ginn and Co., 1967.

Linguistic Approaches To The Teaching of Beginning Reading

This course is designed to familiarize teachers and administrators with our changing language, the relationships of oral and written language, linguistic philosophies and the specific application of linguistic principles to the teaching of beginning reading.

The relationships of the linguistic readers to the Baltimore County K-6 Language Guide are explored.

CLOTILDE DRECHSLER
Assistant Director in Reading

1. Point of View about Language
2. Specific Application of Linguistic Principles to the Teaching of Beginning Reading
3. Study of Selected Reading Series: Harper and Row Linguistic Readers, Merrill Linguistic Readers, and SRA Linguistic Readers
4. Evaluation: How to Measure Pupil Progress in Linguistic Readers
5. The Future: After the Linguistic Readers, What?
6. Relationships of the K-6 Language Guide to Instruction in Beginning Reading

ROBERTA BEHRINGER
Instructor of the Reading Course

Lamb, Pose. *Linguistics in Proper Perspective*, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1967.

Is It Right or Appropriate?

"STANDARDS" IN USING LANGUAGE

Of the many teachers each of us have had during our formal education, there are undoubtedly a few who were outstanding. I still remember my sixth-grade teacher, Miss Longenecker, whose oddly fascinating name, she explained, was derived from "the Longs who lived along the Necker River in Germany." Because she was dedicated to teaching her students to speak and write "correct" English, we spent several hours every day of the entire school year diagramming sentences, usually on the board (sixth graders can't sit still for any extended length of time) and completing grammar workbook exercises, such as "It is (me, I)" and "(Who/Whom) were you with last night?" Although, outside the classroom, we continued to say "It's me" and "Who were you with last night?", Miss Longenecker was a successful teacher. As a result of her instruction, we chanted the definitions of the various parts of speech ("A noun is the name of a person, place, or thing."), had little difficulty diagramming complicated sentences, recognized the incorrect grammatical usages in textbook exercises, and often tossed off the rules ("Use the nominative case after a copulative verb; e.g., 'It is I', not 'me' ") in our English classes in junior and senior high school and even in some of our college freshman courses. Unfortunately, much of what we learned about language was inaccurate, for Miss Longenecker and other English teachers as well as many writers of grammar textbooks in the 1940's were unaware of even the basic concepts of modern linguistics: (1) Language changes constantly, (2) Change is normal, (3) Spoken language is the language, (4) Correctness rests upon usage, and (5) All usage is relative. Although the situation has greatly improved during the last twenty years, the teaching of English usage is still in need of improvement. That is the aim of this lecture.

Meanings of "Grammar"

First, let us define some terms. According to W. Nelson Francis,[1] a great deal of emotional thinking about matters grammatical arises from the confusion among three different meanings of *grammar*. Grammar 1, as Francis calls it, is "the set of formal patterns in which the words of a language are arranged in order to convey larger meanings." All native speakers of a language above the age of five or six are thoroughly familiar with this grammar, since to speak they must know how to use its complex forms of organization. Grammar 2 is "the branch of linguistic science which is concerned with the description, analysis, and formularization of formal language patterns." Just as gravity was in operation before the apple fell on Newton's head, so Grammar 1 was in operation before anyone formulated the first principle which began the history of grammar as a study. This is the grammar we study in school—traditional, structural, or transformational grammar. Grammar 3 is "linguistic etiquette." This sense of *grammar*, frequently used derogatorily, is illustrated by the expression: "*He ain't here* is 'bad grammar'." However, according to Grammar 2, it is not ungrammatical, for it conforms just as completely to the structural patterns of English as "He isn't here." According to Grammar 3, it is "bad," not in itself but in its inappropriate use in certain social situations. Today we are concerned with Grammar 3, "linguistic etiquette," which is also called "usage."

Those concerned with judging the propriety of English usage generally support one or more of the following doctrines: (1) the doctrine of rules, (2) the doctrine of general usage, and (3) the doctrine of appropriate usage.[2] Obviously, the English teacher should be familiar with each of these doctrines.

The Doctrine of Rules

The doctrine of rules was a natural reaction to the verbal enthusiasm of the Elizabethan era, when the English language underwent an enormous expansion of vocabulary. From the beginnings of the seventeenth century there appeared a critical attitude toward English, voiced at first by a few writers who felt that English was an un-

couth and disorderly language, lacking the beauty and regularity of Classical Latin and Greek. But, by the end of the century the idea of the impurity and irregularity of English was commonly accepted. It, however, was not until the eighteenth century, with its zeal for reform, that the prescriptions of the reformers were accepted, approved, and formulated into rules, which were then gathered into textbooks and copied from book to book throughout the nineteenth and even in the twentieth century. For example, one of the most influential eighteenth century writers on language was Bishop Lowth, whose *Short Introduction to English Grammar* (1762) was copied almost in its entirety by Lindley Murray, an American, in his grammar of 1795. Murray's book was immensely popular in the United States for nearly a century, and his successors copied freely from it. Indeed, many of the textbooks of the 1940's and even of the 1950's retained much of the theory and practice of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, in spite of the fact that, according to linguistic evidence, the doctrine of rules was invalid and should have been discarded.[3] Today, fortunately many of the textbooks are more in accord with the finding of modern linguistics; but the aged doctrine of rules is still not dead.

The doctrine of rules is based upon two main sources of authority: the assumed correspondence of the rules of grammar with basic principles of reason and the supposed correspondence of the rules with the usage of the best writers. Remember that the eighteenth century is also called the Age of Reason, and since the eighteenth century grammarians had no conceptions of the history of the English language or the methods of linguistic research, they relied upon reason, which was frequently analogy, to restore English to its pristine glory. The classic example, of course, is the rule concerning the double negative, which was used by Chaucer, Shakespeare and other great writers. Bishop Lowth, however, declared that "two negatives in English destroy one another, or are equivalent to an affirmative." Although we understand that a man who "isn't going nowhere" is certainly not on his way somewhere, this useful idiom was banished from polite speech. Another example is the rule about absolutes, such as *perfect, unique, chief, round.* Because they are absolutes, they supposedly cannot be compared: use *more nearly perfect,* not *more perfect.* At any rate, this eighteenth century practice of linking logic and grammar was carried over to the nineteenth century, receiving the approval of such a great philosopher as John Stuart Mill, who asserted that "the principles and rules of grammar are the means by which the forms of language are made to correspond to the universal forms of thought."[4] However, linguists have shown that there is little correspondence between logic and grammar. Language, they declare, is not logical or illogical, but a-logical. Moreover, as Otto Jespersen demonstrated, what has often pretended to be logic is no more than Latin grammar disguised. For example, the rule that the predicate noun be in the same case as the subject is not, as some have claimed, an inconvertible law of thought but merely a rule of Latin grammar.

English in a Latin World

Classical Latin was greatly esteemed by the eighteenth century scholars, who erroneously believed that English was a corrupt and degenerate off-spring of that language. Consequently, to purify their native language, they forced English into the Latin syntactical patterns. In Latin it is impossible to split an infinitive or to end a sentence with a preposition; hence, the rules for English.

When Winston Churchill read in the margin of one of his manuscript speeches a clerk's comment about not ending a sen-

HAROLD HERMAN

tence with a preposition, the Prime Minister is said to have retorted: "This is arrant pedantry, up with which I will not put." Such is the effect of forcing English, an analytic, Germanic language, into the molds of a synthetic, Italic language.

The doctrine of rules had as its other main source of authority the supposed correspondence of the rules with the usage of the best writers. George Campbell's dictum that reputable, national and present usage determines correctness was approved and repeated by Murray and his successors. But, Campbell and the other grammarians merely paid lip service to the doctrine for usage, for in practice they selected only those passages from the best writers which supported the rules and overlooked the passages from the same writers which violated the rules.

The Doctrine of General Usage

The doctrine of general usage is almost as old as the doctrine of rules, and among its proponents were Joseph Priestly, W. D. Whitney, Fitzedward Hall and Alexander Bain. But it was not until J. Leslie Hall published his ***English Usage*** in 1917 that this doctrine was fully explained and exemplified. In the section dealing with "Who/Whom are you looking for?" Hall cited contemporary liberal grammarians who accepted the use of the nominative case and documented this particular usage in writings of Shakespeare, Marlowe, Defoe, Kingsley and other authors. His major shortcoming was that he relied primarily upon written documents.

One of the most important studies was Sterling Leonard's ***Current English Usage*** (1932). Maintaining that "allowable usage is based on the actual practice of cultivated people rather than on rules of syntax or logic"[5] Leonard submitted a number of items of debatable usage to a jury of linguistic specialists, editors, authors, businessmen, and teachers of English and speech. These judges were to rate each of the items as (1) "literary English"; (2) "standard, cultivated, colloquial English"; (3) "trade or technical English"; or (4) "naif, popular, or uncultivated English." Hall's work, then, is not a survey of the actual practice of cultivated people but of merely their opinions concerning the relative standing of certain items of debatable usage. What a person thinks he says is not necessarily the same as what he actually says. An English teacher, for example, who honestly believes that he does not say "it is me" and drills into his students the rule of using the nominative, not the objective case after a copulative verb may respond to "Who's there?" with "It's me." Nevertheless, the results of Leonard's report are significant, for over seventy-five percent of the judges rated as "standard, cultivated, colloquial English" such items as "It is me," "Who are you looking for?" and "I feel badly." Interestingly, the most conservative of the judges were teachers of English and speech, who were undoubted influenced by the doctrine of rules.

Leonard's study is not a survey of "general" usage, but of "cultivated" usage.

Fries' Study of General Usage

The first comprehensive and well documented study of general usage was presented by Charles C. Fries, who asserted that "It is probably much more sound to decide that the spontaneous usage of that large group who are carrying on the affairs of English speaking people is the usage to be observed and to set the standard."[6] Unlike his predecessors, Fries, who used letters and transcripts of telephone conversations, based his study on both the written and spoken language and was able to record spontaneous rather than studied or edited usage. Furthermore, according to Fries, the standard was to be set not by the best contemporary writers and speakers, for there is little agreement even among scholars on who are the best writers and speakers. Nor was it to be set by "cultivated" people, such as those selected by Leonard, who, with the possible exception of businessmen, had a vested interest in the language. Rather, the standard should be set not by merely teachers of English and speech but all educators as well as businessmen, doctors, lawyers, bankers, government officials—in short, all of those who are socially accepted, those who carry on the affairs of the English speaking people. Lexicographers usually state that standard English is that usage of educated people, a view which is not in opposition to Fries, for it is

principally by education that these positions are obtained. Admittedly, there is some opposition to the doctrine of general usage, which is typically expressed in these terms: "To be educated is not to be cultivated." Nevertheless, the doctrine of general usage is firmly established and winning supporters.

The Doctrine of Appropriateness

In its essentials the doctrine of appropriateness has not changed since the time it was fully presented by George Philip Krapp in his *Modern English* in 1909. In this monumental work, Krapp distinguished "good" English from "standard" English. For our purpose, we will accept Fries' definition of standard English. Krapp, however, wisely pointed out that what was standard in one linguistic community was not standard in another—an assertion which was later verified by the *Linguistic Atlas of the United States.* In the United States we do not have a single national standard English but a number of regional dialects which differ from one part of the country to another. For example, in Eastern New England, a frying pan is called a *spider*; but in the Middle Atlantic States and the South it is called a *skillet*. In New England it is "a quarter *of* or *to* the hour," in the Middle Atlantic states, it is "a quarter *till*," but in the South, it is a "quarter *till* or *to*." The *s* of greasy is pronounced as /s/ in the North but as /z/ elsewhere. You all realize that a native Bostonian doesn't speak like a metropolitan New Yorker, a Baltimorean, or a Charleston, South Carolinian. Consequently, we must recognize the importance of the regional dialects, which is "correct" for the people who live in that geographical area.

Standard English and "Good" English

Distinguished from "standard" English is "good" English, which Krapp defines as any language which "hits the mark"; and that is, any language which satisfactorily communicates the speaker's intended thought and feeling. Recognizing three main tendencies in English speech—"popular English," "colloquial English," and "formal or literary English,"—Krapp declared that each of them had its appropriate uses, depending upon the speaker's topic, his audience, the occasion. Consider the two words, *fire* and *conflagration.* A woman running out of her burning house would not shout, "Conflagration!" but "Fire!" because it hits the mark. The doctrine of appropriateness deals with linguistic options in much the same way that the doctrine of social etiquette deals with options of costume. There are occasions when a woman will wear an evening gown, a cocktail dress, a suit or one of the "better" dresses, a blouse and a skirt, a sweat shirt and jeans. None of these outfits, in themselves, is bad or good, right or wrong, correct or incorrect. Rather, their use is either appropriate or inappropriate to the situation. So it is with language. "Good" English, as defined by Robert C. Pooley, is "that form of speech which is appropriate to the purpose of the speaker, true to the language as it is and comfortable to speaker and listener. It is the product of custom, neither cramped by rules, nor freed from all restraint; it is never fixed but changes with the organic life of the language."[7]

Cultural Levels and Functional Varieties

One of the most important contributors to the study of English usage is John S. Kenyon, who pointed out the need of distinguishing between cultural levels and functional varieties. Moreover, his essay is useful in bringing together much of the material that I have presented.

Language can be described in terms of cultural levels: standard and nonstandard. Within each dialectal area, the standard English, according to Fries, is the practice of the socially accepted, those who carry on the affairs of the English-speaking people. Nonstandard English is that language which is not practiced and is frowned upon by those who set the standard, and includes illiterate speech, localisms, ungrammatical speech and writing, excessive and unskillful slang, slovenly and careless vocabulary and constructions, exceptional pronunciations. The language of Huck Finn and Jim is nonstandard. Kenyon, however, warns us about the connotations of *level*, a metaphor which suggests higher or lower position and, consequently, such value judgments as better or worse, more desirable or less desirable. Nonstandard English can be "good" English if it is used appropriately. Indeed,

"Oops! . . . I forgot to sew up the binary cut!"

today, those who are teaching standard English to children who speak nonstandard English recognize the value of both cultural levels.

For each cultural level, there are functional varieties which closely approximate our different styles of writing and speaking: formal and informal. Examples of these functional varieties are familiar conversation, formal conversation, familiar public address, formal platform or pulpit speech, public reading, public worship, legal and scientific and other expository writing, prose and politic belles-lettres. Again, the functional varieties must be appropriately used. Formal standard English, which is chiefly used in writing on learned topics for a highly educated audience, is not suitable for a student's theme on what he did during his summer vacation. And colloquial English, which is that language used by educated people in familiar conversation, is not appropriate for a doctoral dissertation.

Needless to say, the study of English usage is vast and, at times, complex. However, if we are to properly instruct our students in this area of the language arts program, we must rid ourselves of mistaken notions about what is correct English and replace them with sound concepts.[9]

Footnote References

[1]"Revolution in Grammar," *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 40 (October, 1954), pp. 299-300.

[2]Charles V. Hartung, "Doctrines of English Usage," *The English Journal*, 45 (1956) pp. 517-25. Hartung adds another doctrine, the doctrine of linguistic norms, which is questionable.

[3]See Robert C. Pooley, *Teaching English Usage* (New York, 1946).

[4]See I. A. Richards, *Interpretation in Teaching*, (London, 1938), p. 280.

[5]Sterling Andrus Leonard, *Current English Usage*, (Chicago, 1932), p. 95.

[6]C. C. Fries, *The Teaching of English*, (Ann Arbor, 1949), p. 35.

[7]*Grammar and Usage in Textbooks on English, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin*, No. 14, University of Wisconsin, August 1933, p. 155.

[8]"Cultural Levels and Functional Varieties," *College English*, 10 (1948), pp. 31-36.

[9]In addition to *Teaching English Usage* by Robert C. Pooley and *The Teaching of English* by C. C. Fries, the English teacher should also consult the *Oxford English Dictionary*, *Webster's Third International Dictionary*, and *Current American Usage*, ed. by Margaret Bryant (New York, 1962).

"CORRECT" USAGE — DON'T AND DOESN'T — GRADE FOUR*

A. Objectives—Children should be able to
1. Use the verb substitution frames to find forms of *do*.
2. Form contractions of *do* and *does* not.
3. Reach the generalization that *doesn't* is used with the pronouns *he*, *she*, or *it*.
4. Apply the generalization.

B. Introduction
1. Read the following series of sentences from the board, and ask pupils if any verbs or auxiliaries do not "sound right":
   a. I don't like lemon pudding.
   b. Tom said that he don't like chocolate.
   c. You don't have my pen, do you?
   d. We don't have much homework.
   e. They don't have any.
2. Discuss the usage in each sentence. If some pupils are aware of the nonstandard form in sentence b, ask why they think it doesn't "sound right."
3. Tell the children that they might call upon some of their knowledge of grammar to help them be sure of usage.

C. Grammatical Application
1. Elicit from pupils and list on the board the forms of the verb *do*, using verb substitution frames.
   Let's *do* (that).
   Now he *does* (that).
   He is *doing* (that).
   Yesterday he *did* (that).
2. Write *do does did* on the board. List subject pronouns and any forms of *do* that can follow. Then write the negative contraction.

I do	I don't	I did	I didn't
You do	You don't	You did	You didn't
He does	He doesn't	He did	He didn't
She does	She doesn't	She did	She didn't
It does	It doesn't	It did	It didn't
We do	We don't	We did	We didn't
They do	They don't	They did	They didn't

3. List the pronouns that precede the forms of *do*.

do-don't	does-doesn't	did-didn't
I	He	I
You	She	You
We	It	He
They		She
		It
		We
		They

4. Write on the board:
   a. That girl don't want to play.
   b. This girl don't have a pencil.
   c. That dress don't look becoming on you.
   d. John don't have a bike.
   Underline the noun phrase and rewrite the sentence, using a pronoun to replace the noun phrase. (He don't want to play, etc.)
   Refer to this list of pronouns that occur with the forms of *do*. Notice that *don't* does not occur with *he*, *she* or *it*.
   Correct the above sentences. Say fully the contractions, e.g., That boy don't (do not) want to play. He don't (do not) want to play. That boy doesn't (does not) want to play. He doesn't (does not) want to play. Which of these forms is the *-s* form of *do: do does doing did?*

D. Generalization

Ask: Which form of the verb occurs with the pronouns *he*, *she*, and *it* and the noun or noun groups these pronouns can replace? Which negative contraction occurs with *he*, *she*, *it*?

E. Application
1. Ask pupils to listen to the following sentences read aloud:
   a. I don't want to go.
   b. You don't take your time.
   c. He doesn't like movies.
   d. She doesn't like skating.
   e. It doesn't look like rain today.
   f. We don't need any rain.

*This lesson is a prototype procedure for repetitious practice, with variations, for usage related to grammatical forms such as pronoun and verb forms.

g. You don't have to do it.
h. They don't want to play softball.

2. Read a second series of sentences to the children, and ask them to react by a show of hands to any in which *don't* or *doesn't* is misused.
   a. I don't have a new dress yet.
   b. She don't have one either.
   c. They don't suit me.
   d. He doesn't like any of them.
   e. You don't need one.
   f. It don't matter if you don't go.
   g. We don't care.
3. Have pupils correct sentences b. and f. above. Then provide additional usage practice by asking them to repeat each sentence.
4. Encourage the pupils to make up their own sentences, using correctly *don't* and *doesn't.*

"APPROPRIATE" USAGE — GRADE SIX*

A. Objectives

Children should demonstrate by choosing among verbal options the understanding that appropriate usage depends upon the communications situation.

B. Introduction

Show pupils pictures of articles of clothing and accessories such as tennis shoes or other casual shoes, evening dress for men or women, beaded evening bag, a leather jacket. Present pairs that would be inappropriate for any occasion; for example, tennis shoes and beaded evening bag. Discussion should help pupils see that the pairings seem "funny" because of their inappropriateness to each other when worn together. Ask on what occasions each item would be appropriate.

C. Developmental Activities

1. Show pupils the following sentences that might be spoken by a group of people discussing a house that is for sale:
   a. "Man, what a cool pad."
   b. "I love the darling veranda."
   c. "Boy, what a neat lot for baseball."
   d. "The splendid construction of the home and the spacious lot make this a very fine buy."

   Ask them to match each sentence with pictures of an elderly woman, a teenage boy, a small boy, a youthful-looking salesman.

   Show pupils one more picture of a "father" of a family. Ask them to write one sentence that he might use in the situation. Discuss pupils' responses.
2. Hold an inappropriate picture beneath one of the sentences; for example, a grandmotherly type beneath "Man, what a cool pad!" Compare the humorous reaction with the humor that pupils found in inappropriate pairs of clothing.
3. Ask pupils to react to the following statements:
   a. "Man, it's getting late and I'm cutting out."
   b. "Gentlemen, we are gathered here to celebrate a momentous occasion."

   Hold a picture of a formally dressed man addressing an after-dinner meeting beside dialogue a.; of a hippie addressing a gathering after dialogue b. Ask why each evokes an amused reaction, and help the pupils conclude that it is because of the inappropriateness of the language. Pupils should generalize that language varies according to the speaker and the occasion.
4. As a follow-up, give pupils the following sentences. Raise questions such as: Who do you think is doing the talking? Whom do you think he is talking to? What do you think is going on? Is the language used appropriate or not?
   a. "Cool it! The fuzz!"
   b. "This is a perfectly charming patio."
   c. "Kill that ball! Clobber it! Knock it over the fence!"
   d. "Pass the sugar, please."

*This lesson is a prototype procedure for dealing with usage options where the situation and audience influence the choice of "appropriate" language.

". . . I say it's a plosive voiceless bi-labial stop."

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e. "Oh, Reverend Higgins, I'm delighted to meet you."
f. "Dig that groovy chick."
g. "Four score and seven years ago . . ."
h. "Willie ain't got all his marbles."
i. "This afternoon, at 2 p.m., Congress passed an historic piece of legislation."
j. "Dearly Beloved, we are gathered together . . ."

5. For a concluding activity, have students write one statement explaining to the teacher why they would like a particular gift for their birthdays. Then ask them to re-write the sentence in three different ways—(1) as they might say it to a friend while walking or riding the bus home from school, (2) as they might write the request in a letter to an older relative who might wish to give them a present, and (3) as they might describe the article in a magazine ad directed at boys and girls their own age. Have some of the statements read aloud for comment and evaluation as to "appropriateness" by the class.

Phoneme-Grapheme Relationships

Long before the academic discipline called linguistics was developed, there was language. Long before the written language which is so important in today's world, there was the oral language. Lost in the mists of a past before recorded history is any knowledge of the real beginnings of oral communication between one human being and another. Various theories have been propounded, accepted by some and rejected by others with different ideas. Regardless of the origin and subsequent sophisticated development of the languages of many cultures, each person born into this world must, for himself, learn the system which will be his means of communicating with others throughout his life. It will be an exciting and an unending task throughout his lifetime as his mastery of the language of his particular culture increases in all its phases with education and maturity.

If the premise is correct that language is an ancient and honorable institution and a basic adjunct of every culture in the world, a question should occur to us as teachers concerning the fact that so many of our students fight a losing battle throughout their school careers with all phases of their own language—speaking, reading and writing. How can we explain the antipathy that many students feel toward "English," the all-important study that will help them to communicate effectively with others throughout their lives. Though a great deal has been written in the past to answer these and similar questions, the scope of this paper will limit the discussion to one phase, namely that area of linguistic research which has shed light on the relationships existing between the oral and written language or, if you will, the phonemic and graphemic aspects of language.

The fund or store of information concerning the relationships of oral and written language and their application to language teaching is to be found in the work and research of linguists. This is particularly true of the structural linguists whose early work in the field provided the foundation upon which others have built. So that we as teachers can make maximum use of this research in our classroom work, it is necessary to take from the context of the linguists' total research certain principles which are important in this special area.

Primacy of Oral Language

The first such principle is that dealing with the primacy of the oral language and its importance as the "bearer of meaning." As linguist Charles C. Fries puts it—"the vocal sounds are the primary material out of which a language code is made." To accept this principle is to recognize the importance in our teaching at all levels of the "speaking" phase of our language arts or English programs. Acceptance also requires a willingness to become well informed about all aspects of speech—standard vs. non-standard, dialects and their variations, levels of usage, special characteristics of racial and ethnic groups.

A second basic idea which is important in the area we are considering of phoneme-grapheme correspondences is that of the "alphabetic principle" which underlies our writing system. Here, again, the linguist points out to us the contrasts of an alphabetic writing system with earlier forms of picture writing, logographic writing exemplified by Chinese with as many as forty to fifty thousand logographic characters, and syllabaries still used by many countries to symbolize their language in writing. Though all of this information is interesting as background material, the real thrust of the linguists' exposition of the alphabetic principle is the direct relationship which it has to the teaching of reading and spelling. In this connection, Bloomfield, Fries and others have provided us with information concerning both the background and, more important for teachers, the present patterns of our English spelling system.

Phoneme-Grapheme Relationships in Spelling

To begin to understand the spelling patterns of English, it is necessary first to recognize that while our alphabet is phonemically based, the letters "do not stand in a one for one correspondence with the separate phonemes of our language." Therefore, according to Fries, "we cannot expect

in the Language Program

to be able to match each letter of the English alphabet as it occurs in the graphic representation of English word patterns with an English phoneme." Despite this lack of a one-to-one consistency in phoneme-grapheme relationships, all linguists are quick to point out that modern English spelling is by no means hopelessly chaotic. As Henry Lee Smith, Jr., noted linguist of the University of Buffalo, puts it — "Eighty-five percent of English words are spelled regularly, but the fifteen percent that are irregularly spelled are used about eighty-five percent of the time." A recognition of this fact that most of English spelling is patterned is of inestimable value in constructing materials to teach reading and spelling most effectively and most in harmony with the language itself.

In discussing the information gained from research now available in the field of phoneme-grapheme relationships and spelling patterns, it is necessary to consider first the pioneer work of Charles C. Fries and, secondly, the much more recent investigations of Richard Hodges and E. Hugh Rudorf. A detailed discussion of Fries' research is to be found in his text entitled *Linguistics and Reading*, but for the purposes of this paper emphasis will be placed upon three major spelling patterns:

1. First major set consisting of one syllable words with the general shape of (consonant) — vowel — consonant, e.g., *at, bat, in, bin, beg, cot, bun.*
   In addition, the following types of words are considered part of the first major pattern: initial consonant phoneme represented by two letters (digraph), e.g., *than, ship, chip;* final consonant phoneme represented by two letters, e.g., *bath, ash, much;* initial and final consonant clusters, e.g., *sting, desk, draft, flint, tasks, twelfths.*
2. Second major set consisting of one syllable words that use the final letter *e* to differentiate them from words in the first major set, e.g., *made, came, dine, hope, cute.*
3. Third major set consisting of one syllable words in which the vowel phoneme is represented more fully by *two* letters in contrast to the *one* letter of the first major set, e.g., *beat, wheat, beet, feed, bait, main, bail, road, pound, cloak.*

These patterns comprise the basis for materials and methods suggested by Dr. Fries for the teaching of reading and spelling to beginning readers. My own experience over a number of years has proved the worth of this approach with many retarded readers and adult illiterates who are, in the strictest sense, beginning readers.

Consistency in English Orthography

No discussion of phoneme-grapheme relationships would be complete without a reference to the research done in this field by Richard E. Hodges and E. Hugh Rudorf. Their study was undertaken at Stanford University in 1962 with a USOE research grant under the direction of Paul R. Hanna, well known for previous research and publication of materials in the field of spelling. Hodges and Rudorf collaborated with Hanna and most of the research findings and applications have been published under their names. Since it is possible in this paper to make only a passing reference to this important study, it is recommended that interested teachers read the full report.

In brief, the study consisted of a "detailed statistical analysis of over 17,000 different American-English words that had as its purpose not only to account for phoneme-grapheme correspondences in these words, but to analyze the phonological structure

ROSEMARY GREEN WILSON

underlying the orthography as well. This initial examination explored three factors:

1. The number of different spellings of phonemes in the selected word list
2. The number of different spellings of phonemes as they occur in initial, medial, and final positions in the syllables of these words
3. The number of different spellings of phonemes as they occur in syllables with three degrees of stress included as a factor

"The hypothesis that the alphabetic principle obtains to nearly all words in the lexicon and not just to the most frequently used words was verified . . . this statistical analysis does justify the contention that the vast majority of American-English phonemes are consistently represented in writing when the main phonological factors underlying the orthography are taken into consideration." Finally, Hodges and Rudorf concluded that "the orthography of American-English is determined by a set of rules for unit phoneme-grapheme relationships based, with decreasing productivity, upon three levels of analysis—phonological, mophological and syntactical."

Implications for Spelling Curriculum

In an article written by Hodges in *The Elementary School Journal* (March, 1966) the author posed the question—"What do these findings indicate for the spelling curriculum of the elementary school?" His answer is "that they suggest that a mastery of American-English spelling might be made easier by a conscientious programming of spelling materials that capitalizes on consistent sound-to-spelling correspondences and on the "rules" for making correct associations between phonemes and graphemes." Fortunately, materials are now appearing which are either based on this research or take it into account in the field of spelling instruction.

Other linguists whose research in the field of phoneme-grapheme relationships should be mentioned are Robert A. Hall and Henry Lee Smith, Jr. The former's brief, informative, and readable text entitled *Sound and Spelling in English* is a "must" for all classroom teachers interested in improving their methods in teaching spelling. Included in this booklet, for example, is a table of "Graphemic Representations of English Phonemes."

Phoneme	*Grapheme*	*Examples*
/iy/	ee	meet
	e	be
	e . . . e	mete
	ea	sea
	eo	people
	ei	receive
	ie	believe
	i	machine
	ey	key
	ay	quay

Smith's "The Nature of English Orthography" is also valuable in furnishing background information for teachers even though it is written in more technical language than the material of the other linguists mentioned in this article. However, it is strongly recommended that all teachers read Smith's presentation in the Teacher's Edition of his linguistic reading series published by Harper and Row. In this, the alphabetic principle is stated with a minimum of technical language and its application to the teaching of reading (and indirectly spelling) is made very clear.

As a result of the work of the linguists discussed in this paper, a great store of information is available for the use and enlightenment of classroom teachers. Some of this information has already been translated into classroom materials now available. More of it will be appearing in the near future. However, even if circumstances or finances do not permit the purchase of new books incorporating these ideas, it is still possible for creative teachers to incorporate them in their language arts programs. Perhaps a few of the ideas presented in this article will inspire some to go into the subject more deeply and, with greater knowledge, feel sufficiently confident to try out various new techniques of benefit both to themselves and their students.

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"But What Good Is It?"

RELATING LANGUAGE STUDY TO IMPROVING LANGUAGE USE

Large public school systems are "practical" because they have to produce demonstrable results from expenditure of limited funds and because their pupil population represents the broadest range of human abilities, needs, and aspirations. So during the post-Sputnik, Brunerian era, when subject matter disciplines came back into fashion and when intellectual or cognitive learning was extolled at the expense of the emotional, physical, "affective" learnings, we here in Baltimore County continued to hold to the belief that the child rather than the subject is the center of the curriculum. We retained the conviction that most children want to—indeed, need to—apply what they learn about something to whatever it is they do with it.

Now, the study of information about language has, in the past, produced pretty sterile results. What little research there has been into the transfer of knowledge about English grammar, for example, to the improvement of spelling, talking, composing, and reading indicates that the ability to diagram a given sentence or to respond accurately to questions about parts of speech has very little to do with one's ability to communicate accurately or with one's development of what we ambiguously refer to as "style." This lack of evidence to support the relations of grammar knowledge to language use should not surprise any classroom teacher who has observed the child who gets one hundred per cent on a spelling quiz write "its" for "it's" or "dinning room" for "dining room" in his next theme, or who has heard the child who consistently writes the approved form of "see or saw" say "I seen Joe yesterday" when out with his friends on the playground.

Admittedly, common-sense awareness based on observation has never been considered by peddlers of pedagogy to be a "scientific" basis for teaching; and we, like most other teachers, have gone on year after year, wasting our own and our charges' time with hour after hour of filling in blanks offering options between "right grammar" and "wrong grammar." The quotation marks encasing these words indicate, I hope, that we now consider many of these options a matter of "appropriate usage" or "inappropriate usage"—or some similarly life-situation choice. This is not to imply that pupils should not have a basis for making choices among linguistic options; indeed, this is one criterion for relating grammar to usage. But the manner in which we have gone about trying to help pupils adjust their usage patterns in both speech and writing has not caused appreciable change for the better.

And yet we keep thinking that there *should* be some connection between knowing what verbs are and being able to use verbs to advantage in writing or speaking, or being able to observe how professional writers and pupil-writers use verbs in poems and stories and newspaper articles. *I* keep thinking so, too; and I am going to try to point out some of the common-sense principles our curriculum committees have adopted in the course of writing the bulletin "Relating English Concepts to Literature and Composition."[1]

JEAN SISK

Providing a Broad Language Program

I. The more comprehensive the context of the language program, the greater the opportunity of relating information about language to one's own use of language and to one's appreciation of the way others use language.

This principle may seem too obvious to mention; yet most of the attempts to discover the connections between language information and written composition or speech patterns have been limited specifically to grammar. The County language program, from its first steps towards an articulated K-12 program, is based on a comprehensive view of language study that includes not only grammar but also language change and history, dialects and usage, semantic principles, and phonological information basic to an understanding of the differences between speaking and writing options—including spelling and punctuation problems related to the phoneme—grapheme relationships and suprasegmental markers. Grammatical applications are not excluded; they are, in fact, an important part of our attempt to integrate language study with other aspects of the total English program. Weak verbs diminish the effectiveness of much writing, and children who can recognize verbs and know something about how they function should be able to find predicates and verbals in their own writing, discuss more effective verbs or verb forms, and appreciate the use of descriptive verbs in literature selections they read. They can be helped to see how the verb literally *moves* a narrative. But these are certainly not the only kinds of language facts that offer promise for improvement in language use and appreciation. Beyond grammar, there are certain semantic principles absolutely basic to a true "appreciation" of literature on any level. These are the semantic principles that relate to differentiation between objects and the words that stand for them, between physical reality and verbal representations of that reality, between affective and objective uses of language in both imaginative and factual literature or writing, reflected in the connotative and denotative values of words. There are semantic concepts that, if applied appropriately—even at the elementary level—can help pupils detect prejudice in name-calling, over-generalized opinion, or "slanted" arguments. And what understandings in the school program are more important for their own integrity in the use of language and for the ultimate survival of the race?

Knowing, too, some facts and generalizations about language change and dialects helps pupils to appreciate the difference in options open to them as school children or teen-agers. Such information explains authors' uses of different regional dialects and age-related slang or jargon for characterizations and "real-life" accuracy, and provides the base for innumerable oral and written composing situations that can be fun as well as learning activities.

In addition, knowing something about regular sound-letter combinations helps pupils understand why some words are spelled in certain ways; knowing some word histories makes certain words take on new meanings or helps explain why the spelling seems irregular; really appreciating the *human* dimension in language—the fact that only human beings have language—adds stature to one's own language and its possibilities for expanding one's humanity. Knowing that all are equally "good" for their speakers' use helps the pupil value differences among peoples of the world.

Selecting Among Options

II. Pupils should be helped to see that relating information about language to language use is a matter of selecting among verbal options in the language system rather than of trying to find the one "right way to say it" or write it.

In the past, most transfers were directly made from grammatical "rules" to usage choices. The idea was that if one had memorized, or in some way acquired, the information that "the nominative case of the personal pronoun is used in the predicate nominative position," one would not only be able to complete a drill correctly (It is ____ I, me.), but would also be inclined to use the "right" form with continued practice. The fact that classroom teachers scarcely ever attained the desired change in behavior did not deter publishers from continuing to provide us with endless written

drills (requested by teachers, no doubt), drills where matters of usage were invariably related to grammatical principles, principles — I might add — too frequently based on inaccurate grammar and unrealistic standards of usage.

The arguments between the conservatives and liberals still go on—the "new" conservatives from the transformational-generative camp and the "old" conservatives of traditional or school grammar vs. the exponents of "appropriateness" in language use and the adherents of the "standard-within-a-dialect" school. Meanwhile, the public schools capitalize on whatever insights are coming from linguistic scholars of all persuasions and try to include them in a pluralistic language program that has as many practical applications as we can devise.

Whatever our point of view about the "preferred" or "true" system of grammar and its relations to dialect and usage habits or patterns, however, we must agree that if pupils are to be more secure in their use of language, more creative, freer to express their thoughts, we must help them to find a number of ways of saying and writing, of evaluating what they hear or read. We must try to indicate that the style of one's speech and writing is the unique, unduplicable way in which one makes language express a unique personality by choosing from among all kinds of verbal options that "right" way that is the most accurate, clearest, most emphatic way for a specific purpose and a particular audience.

The kinds of writing and speaking experiences we present and the procedures we use in presenting them are of crucial importance, of course. Offering drills with two options when many more are available is not the way to encourage creative explorations into language use. Neither is the continued clinging to upper middle-class white "standards" of the proper linguistic behavior a way to encourage freedom and security in language use. We are beginning to find better ways to help pupils consider the choices open to them in various kinds of situations. However, we still have a long way to go. Right now we have to keep the doors open to greater freedom, more experimentation, and flexible options among known patterns and choices. We can start by encouraging our pupils to ask themselves, when confronted by the need to say or write something, not "What is the way to say this?" but "How many ways are there to say this? Which is the way I know best that will achieve my purpose?"

Viewing Language in the Communications Context

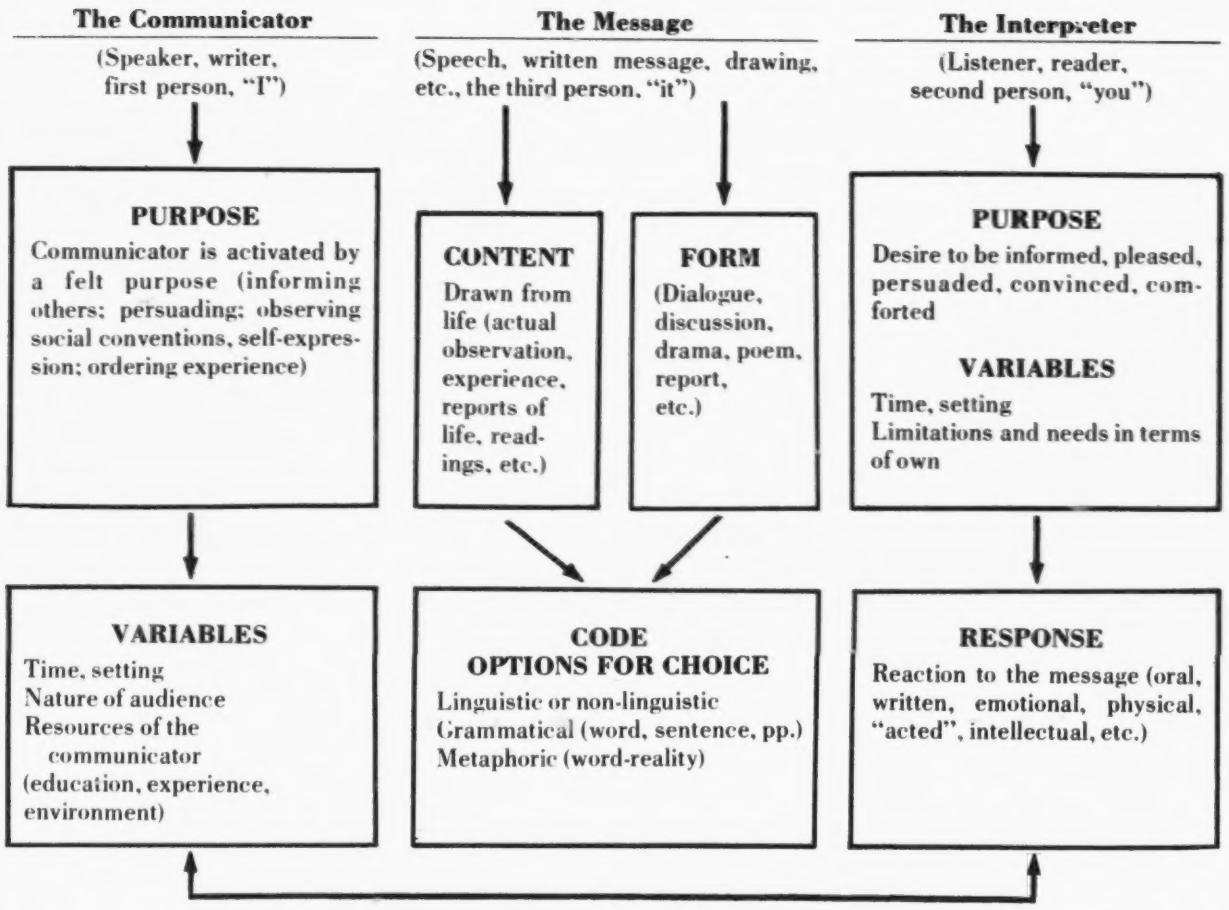
III. Language options must be considered in relation to the total communications situation.

We use language to communicate with others, to talk things out with ourselves, to help us understand our world, and for the sheer pleasure tha sounds and words give. Obviously the options for talking things over with one's self are wide open. As soon as we begin to consider an audience outside us, however, the language choices are conditioned by the context of the total communicating situation—the purposes of both speaker or writer and the purposes of listener or reader, the time and setting in which the communication takes place, the actual distance between communicators, the nature of the subject matter or content, the form of speech or writing the message is to take, the limitations of the users' backgrounds and verbal talents, the kind of a response from the audience that is desired or possible. The language or "code" one uses, the choices one makes as both receiver and sender of communications, depend upon all these variables.

(See chart on page 40.)

No one can consider directly all these variables at once in every writing or speaking experience, but if we are to make language knowledge function in better language use we must stress making language choices related to aspects of the communications situations most relevant to the child's main task or problem. For example, pupils can be helped to see that the word choices, even the level of usage, are affected when one is describing an article "advertised" for trade to one's classmates in a classroom newspaper as opposed to trying to persuade a grandparent that the same article is an indispensable adjunct to one's happiness and consequently a most desirable birthday gift. Children can understand the need to use simple, denotatively clear language in giving directions. They can experiment with the change in the level of

The Total Communications Context


The Communicator
(Speaker, writer, first person, "I")
The Message
(Speech, written message, drawing, etc., the third person, "it")
The Interpreter
(Listener, reader, second person, "you")
PURPOSE
Communicator is activated by a felt purpose (informing others; persuading; observing social conventions, self-expression; ordering experience)
CONTENT
Drawn from life (actual observation, experience, reports of life, readings, etc.)
FORM
(Dialogue, discussion, drama, poem, report, etc.)
PURPOSE
Desire to be informed, pleased, persuaded, convinced, comforted
VARIABLES
Time, setting
Limitations and needs in terms of own
VARIABLES
Time, setting
Nature of audience
Resources of the communicator (education, experience, environment)
CODE OPTIONS FOR CHOICE
Linguistic or non-linguistic
Grammatical (word, sentence, pp.)
Metaphoric (word-reality)
RESPONSE
Reaction to the message (oral, written, emotional, physical, "acted", intellectual, etc.)

usage that occurs when they are talking to their peers on the playground, when they are participating in the school assembly, or when they are eating dinner at home in the presence of important visitors. In such activities, the writing or speaking situation can lead inductively to generalizations about language as well as about human relations or rhetorical effectiveness; or a generalization about language can provide the base for learning something else.

Making Transfers Explicit

IV. Regardless of the starting point—language or literature or composing—the relationships will not be apparent unless the teacher makes a point of providing situations where the connections are explicitly stated, understood, and consciously or deliberately applied.

Transfer of training does not take place unless it is deliberately planned for. We have been teaching English for years as if it were a departmentalized subject, with twenty minutes of spelling, fifteen of handwriting, two periods in a subject called "reading," and a few blocks of time for "literature" and "language arts." We tend to teach "language" that way, whether it be just grammar or a more comprehensive language strand. We should know by now that spelling is a writing skill that must be applied and understood in the context of writing; that reading is a skill that is needed for enjoying literature or making sense of the science experiment. And so, although language skills may have to be introduced or occasionally practiced as primary objectives for certain minutes in the day, their application to the total verbal communication act must be explicitly and purposefully included in the lesson plans for compositions, oral experiences and dramatizations, and reading literature. We cannot hope that pupils will casually observe the powerful verbs in Steinbeck's *Red Pony* or relate their use to the action of the story itself, or that they will eventually relate the speed and excitement of their own told or written stories to the choice of the verb and its position in the sentence. Some children *do* make these connections; most do not. (Wit-

ness the way in which teachers themselves read and write!) We must specifically plan to have pupils notice how language works, and set up speaking and writing situations where they apply what they have observed, if we are to hope for results.

Language Study and Written Composition

Each written assignment or experience should be considered as part of the total communications situation just briefly described. The implications for composition are many:

V. The writer's purpose must be decided first; then the language choices open to him can be related to his purpose and to the audience he expects to write for.

Suppose, for example, that a fourth-grade class has been to the museum or the zoo on a field trip. The children may have many different purposes that can be accomplished in writing a thank-you note to the person at the zoo who made the arrangements or conducted the trip, describing a particularly amusing or interesting animal in a letter to a friend who has moved away or to a grandparent who lives out-of-town, or perhaps telling pupils in another class their observations of an animal they had never seen before. The areas of language study that might be utilized here are those of appropriate usage and diction, denotation and connotation of words, vocabulary choices governed by the pupil's understanding as well as his recipient's background, and differences between concrete and abstract vocabulary (nouns and verbs especially) in describing accurately. Countless others will occur to any teacher who is aware of the language needs and interests of his pupils. (Incidentally, there is no reason that we cannot suggest imaginary audiences to children.)

VI. Once the purpose and the audience are identified and options among language choices discussed at the pupils' level of capability, next the problem of the "form of discourse" must be decided.

Whether it be a letter, a brief summary from which a longer talk will be made, a diary entry, a fairy tale, or an expository-type description, the conventions of language that might apply should be considered. Letter form is not built into language, but it involves language conventions such as capitalization, punctuation, and spacing, and conventional expressions for salutations and closes that have no "logic" but are simply the established linguistic etiquette. Options within the conventions should be dealt with, too. Pupils should not get the idea that there is only one acceptable way to set up letter forms, nor one invariable salutation or close.

VII. After much talk and time to think, pupils should write a first draft before any admonitions to "watch spelling, handwriting, etc. . . ." are given.

This is simply another way of saying that revision of first drafts involves the checking of spelling and mechanics, the rewriting in clearly legible hand or type. Teachers are far too eager to establish all kinds of "standards" before the pupil-author has had time to consider what he is going to say, what sources of content and detail he commands or must explore, what kind of form his writing will take. Writing is difficult enough without including numerous "Don'ts" before the child has gotten his thoughts down on paper—before he has had a chance to concentrate on *what* he is saying. *How* he has said it is a matter for teacher-pupil conference, reading aloud for comment from his peers, sharing in revisions with small groups working together, using various language references available in class. Pupils can be taught to circle words they are not sure of as they write: later, when they have finished the draft, they can check the spelling or meanings of all their circled words at once. Such skills as the ability to write in complete sentences are also better left to the completion of the rough draft. Many run-on sentences can be eliminated by the simple device of having the paper read aloud, either by the pupil or the classmate.

VIII. Language is speech; written English attempts to represent the sounds of speech, but "written English" is not the same as "spoken English."

Writing is a symbol system represent-

ing another symbol system. There are several ways the elementary teacher can apply this principle to the improvement of writing —by helping pupils to relate sentence structure and punctuation to the speech intonation patterns, by indicating the relationships of regular spellings to the spelling patterns modern linguistic research has described, and by stressing, especially in the beginning grades, that writing should seem to read like talking. It is *not* "talk written down," however, as anyone can observe by recording ordinary conversation (including the talk of primary children). The admonition to "write as you talk" is advice to avoid unnatural wordings, stilted phrasings, and forced inversions that so often mar the child's attempts at sentence "variety," encouraged unwittingly by teachers eager to show how adjectives, phrases, and "inverted sentences" are used.

Awareness of the pitches, stresses, and pauses of the spoken language can be applied to the use of certain punctuation marks that are intended to represent speech signals in the writing system, terminals for instance. Other types of punctuation and conventions of spacing and capitalization inserted to make reading easier, such as capitals at the beginnings of sentences and paragraphing, may be pointed out, as well as the punctuation marks that are "grammatical" markers, such as the apostrophe in the possessive noun.

Language Study and Reading

The most important kinds of relationships between language study and reading are now being extensively researched for initial reading, instruction, but there are a number of principles one can adopt in helping pupils who have already acquired skills see connections between their knowledge of language and the reading matter they enjoy and study.

IX. Pupils should be helped to consider all literature as writing intended for them as an audience.

If the pupils understand the roles of communicator and audience in their own writing, they must then also see that they are the audience for whom some author intended his published work. That means that if they have written stories themselves, they have faced some of the problems in word choice that writers all face Getting at the meaning of the literal level of literature may and often does involve that "de-coding" of verbal symbols not familiar to pupils. But going beyond the literal level of the work must necessarily involve careful attention to the writer's choice of connotative values, to his use of sentence length to suggest rapid or slowed action, to the placement of words or ideas in "natural" or "emphatic" order, and to many other choices the writer has made. This is not to suggest that literary analysis is an appropriate activity for children; but literature can be truly appreciated only if the writer's use of language is noticed, however briefly or selectively.

X. The most important relationships between literature and language, however, are those that underscore the reason why literature can present us with experiences that we would not otherwise have: words are the vehicles for transmitting these experiences.

Few adults, and no children perhaps, understand the reality-symbol relationships, the psychological bases by which we can "live" another's life mentally or emotionally, by which we empathize with others. We are not sure exactly how literature, that is, the words of writers, transmits experience, nor even what the nature of the experience is. Reading and enjoying literature is an experience itself, different from all other experiences. But we do know that words have the power to take us out of our daily world into other worlds, out of our own insides into the insides of other people. We do know that the symbolic nature of language and the de-coding of symbols in the human brain makes this transfer of experience available. Pupils can discuss the words that gave them pictures of animals they have never seen or, in the case of fables or myths, that have never even existed. They can learn that the unfamiliar is brought home by the use of familiar words used in different combinations with other words. They can talk about their ideas of characters in stories and then try to locate the words that gave them these ideas. They can explore the dangers of words that stereotype people in literature and in real life and examine the words that seem "true" to feelings and those that seem "false."

Language Concepts in an Integrated English Program

The following general language concepts is a list of statements about language from the language guides that supplement the K-6 bulletin on which the elementary grammar and usage program is based. These statements were selected by elementary curriculum committees from a group of general language concepts prepared by a committee of supervisors and teachers from all grade levels of the system as the concepts to be developed, on increasing levels of complexity and in varying verbal situations, from kindergarten through grade twelve. The concepts are used on the basis of activities aimed at teaching *about* language, but their major use is for suggesting areas of language study that *must* be related to the uses of language in the total communication context, if the linguistic behavior of the learner is to be modified.

THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE

CONCEPT A: Language has four main uses: to inform — to persuade — to entertain — to establish friendly relations and feelings.

CONCEPT B: Language must be learned; using words is not like eating and sleeping—something we are born knowing how to do.

CONCEPT C: Words are one kind of symbol, made up of sounds, that stand for things, ideas, and people. In order to use words accurately, people must agree on the thing the words stand for.

CONCEPT D: Words acquire connotations as a result of individual or group associations with them.

CONCEPT E: The larger the group of things, qualities, or activities a word symbolizes, the less specific the word is.

CONCEPT F: The connotations of words are more useful in persuading people to do or to buy something than are the denotations of such words.

LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

CONCEPT A: Language is one of many ways to communicate; it is usually, but not always, the more exact way.

CONCEPT B: Language is a distinctly human way of communicating; animals communicate, but they do not "talk."

CONCEPT C: In order to communicate, there must be a speaker or writer, a listener or reader, and a "message" to communicate.

CONCEPT D: In order to communicate in writing, people must have a mutual understanding of the graphic system.

CONCEPT E: When people speak or write they must consider the age, interests and backgrounds of their listeners or readers.

STRUCTURE OF LANGUAGE

CONCEPT A: All languages have systems that communicate meaning. The two main parts of the system are the vocabulary codes and the grammar codes.

CONCEPT B: In order to communicate in any language, one must be familiar with the intonation patterns and the sounds of that language.

CONCEPT C: There is a certain word order that is typical of the English language.

EDWARD JAMES
Lecturer in Grammar

CHANGES IN LANGUAGE

CONCEPT A: Languages change by adding new words.

CONCEPT B: The structure of the language provides ways to add new words.

CONCEPT C: Languages change by dropping words.

CONCEPT D: Sometimes old words take on new meanings.

CONCEPT E: Languages change their form over long periods of time.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SPEAKING AND WRITING

CONCEPT A: Spoken language is learned by imitation; written language is learned by direct instruction.

CONCEPT B: Writing is an attempt to represent speech. The English language has over thirty-three sounds with only twenty-six letters to represent them.

CONCEPT C: Written words are made of letters, and letters stand for sounds.

CONCEPT D: The intonation system of a language provides more exact clues to meaning than any written representation of the system can provide.

CONCEPT E: Some languages do not have writing codes, but most languages use some sort of alphabet to indicate the sounds or words of the language.

LANGUAGE AND EXPERIENCE

CONCEPT A: Words can give only an approximate idea of the actual experiences they represent.

CONCEPT B: Sometimes the sounds of letters and words imitate the sounds of the things they are describing.

CONCEPT C: Different people react differently to the same statement.

CONCEPT D: Language extends experience, and experience extends language.

CONCEPT E: The language we gain through our own experiences is the language we use in ordinary communication. The language we come to understand in literature is language that extends our experience beyond what actually happens to us.

LINGUISTIC AIDS TO THE APPRECIATION OF POETRY

PLANNED AND TAUGHT BY MRS. JEANNETTE CLOPPER, CATONSVILLE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, GRADE 6.

A. Generalization

Language concepts of form classes, word choices and punctuation can add to the appreciation and understanding of poetry.

B. Purposes – Pupils should be able to

1. Relate the author's choice of words to the feeling of rapid motion suggested by the poem studied.
2. Pick out form classes used by the author.
3. Name other devices such as rhyme scheme, punctuation, and configuration that add to the feeling of rapid motion.

C. Introduction

1. Recall with the class how words are used by authors
   a. to describe people
   b. to describe feelings
   c. to describe things
   d. to express humor
   e. to express excitement
2. Show pictures of different kinds of rivers and ask the class to give words or phrases they might use to describe the rivers shown.

C. Developmental Activities

1. Read aloud the poem "Wilderness River" by Elizabeth Coatsworth. Do not read the title during the first reading. Have the class listen to see what kind of river the poetess is describing. Ask: How do you know?
2. Reread the poem to give a feeling for movement in the poem. Have the pupils follow in their texts.
3. Discuss the following questions to bring out the effect of the author's words on the reader's feelings:
   a. Do you think you would want to wade in the wilderness river? Why or why not?
   b. Notice the word "born." What does this indicate about this River?
   c. Do you think you could take a

boat down the river? Read words or phrases to help prove your answer.

d. How does the poet seem to feel when she sees the wilderness river? Why does she feel this way?

4. Discuss these questions to bring out how the author achieves the effect of rapid motion.
   a. What is the rhyming pattern of the poem? What effect does the rhyming pattern have?
   b. How else does the poetess give the reader the impression of a rapidly flowing River?
      1) Word choice
      2) Short lines
      3) No stanzas
      4) Little punctuation
5. Have several of the children read the poem, trying to give the class the feeling of rapid motion.

E. Conclusion

1. Summarize with the class the various ways Elizabeth Coatsworth gives her readers the picture of a wilderness river. List on the board.
   Ask: Why are word choices and the connotations of words so important in poetry?
2. Have the class try to write a short poem, two or more lines, in which they describe rapidly moving water. Tell them to try to use the devices Elizabeth Coatsworth used.

F. Materials

1. Poem, "Wilderness River," by Elizabeth Coatsworth in *Silver Web* (Boston, D.C. Heath & Co.), p. 123.
2. Projector, slides of a variety of rivers —slow, fast, broad, narrow, etc.

EFFECTIVE USE OF VERBS IN LITERATURE

PLANNED AND TAUGHT BY MRS. EVELYN JAMES, VICTORY VILLA ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, GRADE 4.

A. Generalization

Verbs are effective words to express action, to create a mood, and to set the time in which a story takes place.

B. Procedure

1. Allow pupils a few moments to describe a kitten they have known. Then ask them to think of the actions of the kitten. List the actions as they are given, using *verb* forms to report them.
2. Project the poem "A Kitten" from *Let's Enjoy Poetry, Grades Four, Five, and Six* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1966), p. 140. Compare the poet's description of the actions of the kitten with those given by the children. Then ask what kind of words have been used to tell about the action. Review the "Let's" clue if necessary. Also put up the verb frame as a further clue to verb identification and ask which verbs fit the frame.
3. Ask children to think of a seal, and suggest that they think of verbs that might be used in a poem about a seal. List some of the verbs given; then show the transparency of the poem "Seal" in *Reflections on a Gift of Watermelon Pickle* (Scott Foresman and Co., 1966), p. 29.
   Have the children pick out the verbs used by the poet and note the kind of movement they describe.
4. Help children form the generalization that *verbs express movement or action.*
5. Show the following list of verbs from "Pecos Bill Gets a Mount":

whirred	coiled
darting	spitting
striking	muttering
sunk	drew

   Discuss the kind of movement indicated and have the children try to draw some conclusions about the character who is performing the action.
   Then, after reading the passage, ask which character was being described and how the verbs helped show his actions and feelings.
6. Now direct the children to look at the following list of verbs from "Beowulf" (adapted *In Brave and Bold.* Row Peterson 1953, p. 254):

(Cont'd on p. 46)

Lesson Plans

seized	cracked
stretched	roared
grappled	razed
gripped	overturned

Elicit from the children the general mood of the passage by asking: Do these verbs tell us about the kind of event that is taking place? How are the people feeling? Then let the pupils hear the passage and discuss the mood conveyed.

Ask pupils to tell when the action took place and how they know (*-ed* endings). Have them try to describe the action as if it were currently taking place. List the verbs used and compare them with the original list. From this exercise, the children should be able to form the generalization that *verbs can show time.*

7. Give children an opportunity to look at the list of verbs from "Grandpa Hopewell":

growled	snorted
grumbled	tore
whooped	

Ask who might be performing these actions. Then read the passage to the children and allow time for them to discuss the fact that the very alive-sounding verbs were talking about something not alive, a tractor. Discuss why an author would want to make a tractor seem alive in a story. Give the pupils a chance to recall other stories in which inanimate objects have been given life-like qualities. From the discussion, help the pupils form the generalization that *verbs can be used to make things not living come alive and verbs can show feelings.*

8. Give the children an opportunity to supply some good verbs for a literature passage from which verbs have been omitted.

Supply a little background for the story "Eelka and the Ancient Wheel." Then project a passage from the story with the verbs omitted. After permitting the children to supply some verbs, show those used by the author. Ask how the verbs help reveal the feelings of the story character.

C. Conclusion

Conclude by reviewing the generalizations covered in the lesson: *Verbs express action, create the mood of a story or poem, and set the time in which a story takes place.*

D. Materials

1. Verb frames on cards (See procedure #2).
2. Transparencies of the following materials:

"A Kitten." *Let's Enjoy Poetry, Grades Four, Five and Six* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1966), p. 140.

"A Seal." *Reflections on a Gift of Watermelon Pickle* (Scott Foresman and Co., 1966), p. 29.

"Eelka and the Ancient Wheel." *Silver Web* (D.C. Heath and Co., 1964), p. 326.

3. Lists of verbs from the following selections in *Brave and Bold* (Row Peterson and Co., 1953).

"Pecos Bill Gets A Mount", pp. 216-217, paragraph 4

"Beowulf", p. 251

"Grandpa Hopewell and his Flying Tractor", p. 164

What's New in Elementary English

Much that is new in English education at the elementary level reflects George Leonard's assertion that "The first task of education is to return man to himself; to encourage rather than stifle awareness; to educate the emotions, the senses, the so-called autonomic systems; to help people become truly responsive and therefore truly responsible."[1] Providing these opportunities for an individual to learn about himself as a person and to respond to others is also the first task of the teacher of English. Faculty and students alike are now asking themselves: "Who am I?" "What do I value?" "What does society value?" "How do I discover who I am?" The learner's life, his perspective, his emotions—how he feels about himself and the products of his expression, whether written or spoken — emerge as vital and relevant considerations for teachers. The problems of communication in a multi-ethnic and multi-cultural so-

ciety underscore the fact that the school can no longer neglect these concerns.

If the development of responsive, contributing, and responsible members of society is a function of today's school, what are the appropriate goals of the English program? It appears realistic to expect that the school must help each pupil in this process of becoming a person who can effectively communicate in both written and spoken language. Furthermore, an English program which encompasses the broader concerns for man and his relationship to others will certainly facilitate a student's finding himself in creative effort, improving his ability to make decisions predicated on thinking that examines options and alternatives. As a result of participating in such a program, students can be expected to progress along the way to becoming more self-assured, independent, perceptive, empathic, and committed to values they are able to identify and examine critically. Educators who recognize the humanizing potential of communication studies will attend to these and similar objectives.

Old Areas Receive New Look

How is the philosophic "new look" in English education implemented in the teaching and learning of the several language arts? The study of language and the contributions of linguists have constituted a large part of the new in language arts instruction, but the focus on the individual and his feelings has prompted change in all facets of language education. Three areas which have been accorded considerable fresh emphasis and examination are speaking, literature, and drama. Also, a fourth arrival on the English scene is interest in non-verbal communication.

Experiencing life by speaking. Since a child speaks more than he writes, and, since he will not write better than he talks, there must be no end to the opportunities for him to talk, to discuss, and to converse with adults *and* with his peers in the school. Strickland proposes three goals of instruction in oral expression. They are clear, intelligible language; language that suits the occasion and need; and originality in the use of language.[2] Students are entitled to an atmosphere which is conducive to talking, one in which their ideas are valued and one which is open enough to absorb each and every contribution at the appropriate place. Speakers need genuine reasons for speaking and they need listeners who are sincere and give honest, helpful feedback. Intermediate grade children solving problems in small groups, listening to a composition and discussing positive and negative aspects of it are engaged in talk that counts—talk that makes a difference. Personal worth and a sense of security are enhanced when what a child says means something and is received by someone who cares.

Experiencing Life Through Drama and Literature

The opportunities that drama provides for self-knowledge, self-identification, and understanding of others are limitless. Drama is acting out everyday situations, trying out roles, and attempting to stand in someone else's shoes. This is the natural play of childhood which some schools not only ignore but discourage as timewasting and educationally unprofitable. If given the chance, students could act out their reaction to being told that the corner lot can no longer be used for softball. How might they approach the town recreation board? How do they think the board will respond? What problems do victims of earthquakes and landslides face? How do they feel when asked to join the neighborhood club? This is the "stuff of life" and only when students are encouraged and given a chance to act it out can they grow in understanding themselves and others.

JESSIE RODERICK

Literature is all too often neglected in the elementary program, yet this facet of the language arts offers students a chance to become imaginative, humanistic people who learn about themselves as they *experience the books they read*. Becoming involved, reacting to, feeling a work should precede analysis. In addition, literature presents students with opportunities to express emotions and to experience the real world. An intermediate grade child of an alcoholic will probably be better able to cope with his situation after having read *I'll Get There: It Better Be Worth the Trip*.[3] We can help students not only return from but also learn from these literary "trips." These are trips that can be profitable if carefully guided. Opportunities to release and experience feelings through literature provide impetus to create, to imagine, and to empathize.

In today's society it is crucial that children be exposed to good literature of and by children in all walks of life. Much emphasis is currently placed on literature about the Negro, the Puerto Rican, and other minority groups. Extreme care must be taken in evaluating the spate of books recently published. Perhaps a serious study of folklore of a people will provide some of the needed understanding of their lives, motives, and values. The potential for literature to aid in the humanizing process is there. All teachers and students need do is capture it.

Providing Opportunities for Creativity

Creative writing in the curriculum is not new, but what is new and refreshing is the serious examination and questioning of current practices. Is not process more important than product? Why do some teachers find their students having difficulty writing creatively? Could it be that adults' need to evaluate creative writing is inconsistent with the goals of writing? Do we need a new set of evaluative criteria—a set that reflects our endorsement that children write about what interests them not about a picture placed before them or a topic which asks, "What did the pen say to the pencil in the desk drawer?" Do we take children's thoughts seriously and convey this to them? Do we provide an audience for their writing? Do we recognize that not all children can write when the command is given? These questions are being answered and the result is a new perspective on creative writing.

Teachers who use a multi-media approach to English education witness to the fact that English is not just print. Media can encourage students to create their own presentations and to see the relationship between the varied media and creative expression.

An interesting and exciting facet of communication which is receiving attention is non-verbal communication. What do gestures, facial expressions, body movements convey? What do they tell about the person using them? What non-verbal communication exists outside the human realm? Traffic signals, road signs, furniture arrangement—what do they convey? How do children interpret them? What help is required to interpret them? How can an understanding of non-verbal signals and skill in using them enhance self-understanding and expression? No teacher can afford to ignore non-verbal communication. It is ever-present and influential.

Having established goals and how they might be implemented, it is appropriate to examine factors which facilitate implementing the objectives.

School personnel who view learning as more than memorizing, organizing, and reciting information promote the kind of learning that involves reacting, experimenting, interacting, and valuing. Such teachers are aware that children's perceptions are sensory and emotional before they become intellectual. Growth in learning is more than learning things; it is creating things, creating roles, creating ideas. Teachers who invite creative thinking and expression are not afraid of the accompanying disorder. Rather, they utilize these experiences as opportunities for children to become involved emotionally, to think, to see, to touch—not necessarily what others paste on their lives but what they bring to communication from within themselves and their unique experiences.

Opening Doors to Experiences with Language

Which elements of a child's life-space are conducive to creating, thinking, and valuing? A one-word answer might be "openness"—openness in dealing with people,

Left to right (top): MARIAN SMITH, *Secretary;* DAVE BEZANSON and CHUCK EDEL, *Aides;* FLORENCE ALLARD, *Secretary*
Left to right (bottom): KATHERINE KLIER, ANGELA M. BROENING, and MORRIS TRENT, *Staff Consultants* .

space, time, and curriculum. An open classroom is characterized by trust—a trust that encourages the expression of feelings and a sensitive reaction to these expressions.

A classroom environment which encourages decision-making is open in the respect that children are presented alternatives as they make choices, and once the choice is made it is respected.

Diversity in thinking and expression is encouraged by people who value difference. It is also facilitated by the physical arrangement of classroom materials and equipment which in turn permits small group planning, discussing, and evaluating.

Openness in the developing person is enhanced by an element of surprise in the classroom—the unexpected, the unusual, the other way of looking at a situation. Heterogeneous grouping of students also has possibilities for assuring openness in human interaction and communication.

A discussion of the teaching-learning environment that facilitates personal development as related to communication must of necessity examine the actions of teachers. What does a teacher *do* that encourages personal growth? What is the effect of teacher characteristics and teacher-student interaction on thinking and in turn on the nurture of the imagination and development of creative potential? Answers to such questions are far from complete at this point, but the work of Flanders and Bellack, to mention a few, give promise for the future. Present knowledge suggests that a program directed toward contributing to the development of creative, responsive, imaginative people requires teachers who look at their teaching, who analyze their own verbal and non-verbal behavior, who are people-oriented, and who possess some of the dreams of life.

Everywhere, signs point to the importance of the human element in the teaching-learning process. English education is the natural place for this to occur. Sensitive, creative teachers and administrators have already begun, and by their beginnings they have provided incentive and encouragement for others.

Footnote References

[1]George B. Leonard. *Education and Ecstacy*. New York: Delacorte Press, 1968
[2]Ruth G. Strickland. *The Language Arts in the Elementary School*. 3rd Edition. Lexington, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1969
[3]J. Donavan. *I'll Get There: It Better Be Worth The Trip*. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, Inc., 1969